**University of Birmingham**

**International Development Department**

**School of Government and Society**

**To build back better:**

**Possibilities of changing attitude towards disabled children**

**in a post-conflict reconstruction context**

***The Chechen Republic case study***

**A dissertation submitted in partial requirement**

**for the degree of Master of Science in International Development**

**(Conflict, Security and Development)**

**Name: Ekaterina Glebova**

**Student ID: 1296742**

**Supervisor: David Cobley**

**Word count 16,499**

**1 March 2015**

**ABSTRACT**

War and conflicts, although adversely affecting human life, and especially the lives of children, provide a unique opportunity to transform approaches to those who are most vulnerable, namely disabled children. In a post-conflict environment, while reconstructing ruined buildings and infrastructure, rehabilitating social systems and institutions, actors in the field of development have the opportunity to apply new visions and methods brought to the conflict zone by the influx of international humanitarian agencies. Inclusive education if offered to disabled children with war-related impairments on an equal basis to children with congenital impairments, could in turn stimulate the further inclusion of disabled people into society.

The thesis aims to explore the relevance of the theory of ‘build back better’ to a case study of the Chechen Republic. In that particular post-conflict environment, favorable conditions as well as serious obstacles to the promotion of inclusive approach to education have emerged. The result of this interaction deserves the due attention of those particularly working in the field of post-conflict development and concerned with a right’s based approach to disability.

**ACKOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my gratitude to David Cobley who influenced my decision to work and study in the area of disability issues in a development context and who has been consistently supportive, steering my thinking during the processes of education and research.

Gratitude goes to the prominent representatives of the Russian academic community: Valery Tishkov, Elena Iarskaya-Smirnova and Abdula Bugaev, for their assistance during the different phases of my study based on the unconditional recognition of the value of scientific knowledge.

Special thanks to my associates in the Chechen Republic, all whom I have met and interviewed, for their invaluable contributions to my study. Gratitude to those who hosted me and spent time accompanying me to the villages, and who were always ready to answer any additional question. Massive gratitude particularly to Rabu Azdaeva, Aub Gairabekov, Taisa Kantaeva and Zeinap Batukaeva.

Recognition and many thanks to my colleagues in Moscow DPO Perspektiva, and especially Maria Perfilieva, for their valuable insights into disability issues in Russia, in particular the inclusive education approach, and for sharing the details of their vision for the promotion of inclusive education in the Chechen Republic.

With all my pleasure, I thank my friend Christine Adams for her help and encouragement and assure her that I’ll take my place in the chain of kindness.

Finally, I would like to express my endless gratitude to my family, and especially to my daughter Alexandra, for being so patient and supportive and for her constant faith in my strength and capabilities.

**ACRONYMS**

**AMSRC**  - Argun Medical Social Rehabilitation Centre

**BPRM** – Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration

**CARE** –Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere, international agency

**CRDP** – Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

**DFID** – Department for International Development

**DPO** – Disabled People’s Organizations

**ECHO** – European Commission Humanitarian Aid & Civil Protection

**IMC** – International Medical Corps

**ICRC** – International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

**HI** – Handicap International

**IDP** – Internally Displaced Persons

**IE** – Inclusive Education

**INEE** – Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies

**INGO** – International Non-Governmental Organization

**LSG** – Let’s Save the Generation, NGO

**MoE** – Ministry of Education

**MoL** – Ministry of Labor

**NGO** – Non Governmental Organization

**PINF** – People In Need Foundation

**RCF** – Russian Children’s Foundation

**RRC** – Republican Rehabilitation Centre

**SRC** – Shali Rehabilitation Centre

**SSRC** – Shali Social Rehabilitation Centre

**UN** – United Nations

**UNESCO** – United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization

**UNICEF** – United Nations Children’s Fund

**USAID** – United States Agency for International Development

**USSR** – Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Soviet Union)

**UXO** – unexploded ordnance

**VOG** – All Russian Society of the Deaf (Vserossiskoe Obschesto Gluhyh)

**VOI** – All-Russian Society of Disabled People (Vserossiskoe Obschesto Invalidov)

**VOS** – All-Russian Society of the Bind (Vserossiiskoe Obschestvo Slepyh)

**VoM** – Voice of the Mountain, NGO

**WFP** – World Food Program

**WHO** – World Health Organization

**WRC** – Women’s Refugee Commission

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

**Acknowledgements** 3

**Acronyms** 4

**Table of contents** 6

**I. Introduction** 8

1. Key terms and definitions 8

2. Research background 9

3. The main concept of research 9

4. Research methodology and objective 11

5. Research Questions 11

6. Structure 12

**II. Literature** review 12

1. The main theory: to build back better 13

2. Empirical studies 16

**III. Background** 20

1. Disability issues in Russia on the cusp of 90s 21

1.1 Disabled children and residential institutions 21

1.2. Disabled people’s organizations 23

2. Disability issues in the Chechen Republic on the cusp of 90s 23

2.1. Disabled children 23

2.2. Disabled people’s organizations 26

**IV. Research design and methodology** 26

**V. Ethical considerations** 28

**VI. Limitations** 29

**VII. Findings and Analysis** 29

1. Preconditions for humanitarian intervention 29

1.1. Insurgency. Military conflicts 29

1.2. Victims 30

1.3. Schools, Boarding schools and institutions 31

1.4. Emergence of local NGOs and DPOs 32

2. Post-conflict reconstruction 33

2.1. Political situation and security 33

2.2. Schooling in post-conflict environment 34

2.3. Mine survivors and other war victims 36

2.4. Psychological assistance 37

2.5. Pensions and benefits 39

2.6. Rehabilitation institutes 40

2.7. Boarding schools and education of disabled children 41

2.8. Inclusive Education 43

2.9. Obstacles on the way of Inclusive Education 44

3. Analysis 47

**VIII. Conclusion** 53

**References** 55

**Appendixes** 64

Appendix 1 65

Appendix 2 66

Appendix 3 67

Appendix 4 68

Appendix 5 69

**I. Introduction**

**1. Key terms and definitions**

Disability is defined by the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities as an evolving concept that “results from the interaction between persons with impairments and attitudinal and environmental barriers that hinders their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others” (CRPD, 2006, preamble e). This idea is based on a so-called ‘social model’ of disability that recognizes un-adapted environment, social oppression and discrimination, but not bodily impairments, as the main causes of disability (Oliver, 1983). In contrast, the ‘medical model’ of disability is focused on bodily impairments causing functional limitations that prevent an individual from the full exercise of the usual activities of human beings. It assumes that person with impairment should be placed in a more suitable environment, often isolated from other people, where the limitations of his/her body can be addressed by specialists (Barnes and Mercer, 2003).

The gradual shift towards recognizing the equal rights of disabled persons has been inspired by their own activists and antidiscrimination movement of Disabled People’s Organizations (DPOs). In many countries, it evolved into the ‘social welfare’ approach, in which disabled people are perceived as requiring specialised medical care, pensions and education in order to exercise their rights to a decent life. In practice, however, this concept still entails the segregation of disabled people commonly in specialised institutions from early childhood (UNICEF, 2005).

In contrast, the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) promotes inclusion at all levels as the most advanced approach to disability so as to achieve equality and full participation of disabled persons in society. The Inclusive education approach, as defined by the Salamanca Statement, promotes an education system with “a child-centred pedagogy capable of successfully educating all children, including those who have serious disadvantages and disabilities” (UNESCO, 1994, p.6). It aims to provide education for all taking into account individual features, learning styles and interests of everyone.

The complexity of disability is exacerbated by gender and race, age and social status; in contemporary society, the definition of disability encompasses a wide variety of types and degrees of impairments. In this research the term ‘disability’ is used to describe physical, sensory and mental impairments, which in interaction with physical and social barriers may generate discrimination, inequality and segregation of persons from society.

**2. Research background**

In the Russian Federation, traditionally prevailed medicalised approach to disability, or ‘social welfare’ that was recognized as effective in the collection of data on disabled people for the provision of regular pensions, medical examinations and specialised forms of education adapted to the abilities of disabled children (Fröhlich, 2010).

Children’s disability was expressed in terms of ‘defectology’ – a specialised discipline that classified disabled children as ‘defective’ from the norm. It was widely perceived that for optimal care, disabled children should be placed in residential institutions (boarding schools or orphanages) according to disability type. Given the lack of community-based care and the absence of appropriate conditions in mainstream educational institutions, parents were usually advised to place their disabled child in an institution from a very young age. A significant number of disabled children consequently grew up in isolation from society, often transiting from children’s institutions to adult residential homes where they spent the rest of their lives. Those children who remained with their families were usually deprived of education and hidden from normal social life (UNICEF, 2005, UNICEF, 2012).

**3. The main concept of research**

‘To build back better’[[1]](#footnote-1) is a concept described and adopted by scholars (Kett, 2007, 2010, Kett, Ommeren, 2009, Trani, 2011, Miles, 2013) as well as organizations (WHO, 2013, WRC 2008) working in post-conflict environments on disability-related issues. It proposes that despite adversity, destruction, devastation and other myriad challenges, conflict and post-conflict reconstruction could become catalysts for positive social, environmental and attitudinal changes in disability-related policy.

In the Chechen Republic at the beginning of the 2000s, almost 10 years of a destructive insurgency and two bloody wars had laid waste to all systems, services and infrastructure. The new Chechen government, with the assistance of the Russian Federal government and in collaboration with UN agencies, local and international NGOs, made significant efforts to rebuild the severely damaged Republic, to re-establish local political, economic and social institutions and to reconstruct public services.

Tens of thousands of people were victims of the violent conflict; many, including a large number of children, had been maimed. Since such war-related disability did not bear any stigma and was neither a source of shame, it represented a unique opportunity to change attitudes towards disabled children.

In rebuilding infrastructure, social institutions and public services, the local government had an opportunity to not only make the environment more accessible and friendly to disabled people but to make society more inclusive; they could start from inclusive education for disabled children.

The presence of international organizations as development partners in the initial stage of the reconstruction period could become a catalyst in the promotion of new vision and approach to reconsider status of disabled children; for emergence of local NGOs of disabled persons and the removal of existing environmental and attitudinal barriers. UN agencies in collaboration with international NGOs (INGOs) had the opportunity to share methods and technics with local NGOs and government authorities and to insist on their implementation in the newly reconstructed schools and institutions.

Interventions and massive investments by the Russian Federal government significantly changed the Chechen Republic’s image for other members of the Federation as well as for the international community. With its recent history of war and large number of disabled children, Chechnya had the chance to become the first region in the Russian Federation that was friendly and non-discriminatory towards disabled people, the first in the removal of barriers and the promotion of their equal rights in society.

**4. Research methodology and objective**

I work for a Russian Non-governmental Organization of Disabled People (Disabled People’s Organization), Perspektiva, whose mission includes the empowerment of disabled people and the promotion of inclusive education in Russian regions (UNICEF, 2012, p.60). In particular, Perspektiva, in collaboration with UNICEF and local NGOs, concentrated its efforts on the promotion of inclusive education in the Chechen Republic during its reconstruction phase. Its specialists visited the Republic many times, organizing workshops and conferences to enhance the efforts of the local community in changing attitudes and removing barriers.

My dissertation is based on two brief periods of field research in March and July 2014 when I visited the Chechen Republic and conducted interviews with local people, as well as a literature review and thorough research of existing materials, reports of government institutions, UN agencies, international and local NGOs.

The literature review describes the main concept of changing attitudes towards disabled children in a post-conflict environment. It explores the interaction of government institutions and international and local NGOs in the rehabilitation of disabled children and efforts to promote their integration into society, including associated challenges, failures and achievements.

In this dissertation, I endeavour to establish which prerequisites existed in the Chechen Republic to change policy towards children with disabilities, how interagency collaboration attempted to enhance endeavours in the promotion of an inclusive society for children in this post-conflict context, what has been done to achieve this goal, which possibilities were missed and why.

This is a unique exploration since, to my knowledge, no previous research of this sort ever made on the case study of the post-conflict Chechen Republic. It is likely that the results will provide useful information to support the ongoing work of agencies and INGOs with disabled children in post-conflict environment.

**5. Research Questions**

The main question:

How did policy towards disabled children in the Chechen Republic change due to the military conflict and in the post-conflict reconstruction period?

Subsidiary questions:

What prerequisites for the promotion of inclusive education emerged in the Chechen Republic in the post-conflict period; was republican education system re-established as more inclusive and to what extent?

What was the impact of international organizations and local NGOs, which worked as development partners in the post-conflict reconstruction period, in the rehabilitation of disabled children and the promotion of inclusive education?

What kind of pitfalls and impediments has hindered the implementation of inclusive education and changes in attitudes towards disabled children?

How could these limitations and restrictions be overcome in existing reality?

**6. Structure**

The first section of the dissertation is a review of literature dedicated to the main theory on which the dissertation is based – ‘to build back better’ - provided by scholars working in disability in the areas of conflict and emergency and their empirical studies.

The background part describes the environment and situation concerning children’s disability issues on the cusp of the 1990s in the Russian Federation and the Chechen Republic, in particular.

There will be Methodology chapter describing the methods of the research and data collection, Ethical issues and Limitations.

Chapter Findings and Analysis consists of results of the research.

**II. Literature review**

Bearing in mind that this is a case study, the literature review was conducted with the primary aim of developing the dissertation’s theoretical framework (Yin, 1994). It sought to provide background information on the problem, to define the main theory and to reveal pre-existing empirical studies on the topic to support or refute the theory (Blaikie, 2000). The goal was to establish the relevance of this theory to the case study, to identify the existence of any gaps and to determine how the theory could be developed to be applicable to a particular context.

The justification of the choice of literature was conditioned by these goals.

Resources of the University of Birmingham on-line library were used together with some books and materials sent from the university as a module pack. Then, a search was conducted along the main theory among the studies and articles of those authors concerned with the issue of disability and development. Materials included books, book chapters and journal articles as well as working papers, reports, and past dissertations found by searching the electronic databases of international agencies, government institutions, NGOs and the media.

**1. The main theory: to build back better**

Scholars have noted that little research has been conducted on disability in conflict and post-conflict reconstruction periods; there is little data on the influence of conflict on attitudes towards disabled people and no evidence of their inclusion at any stage of reconstruction phase (Kett 2007, 2010). Similarly there was limited evidence of the inclusion of disabled children in education as part of the process of post-conflict reconstruction (Miles, 2013).

However these same researchers, and some other authors provide us with an opportunity to explore the main trends in the impact of conflict on disabled people and have defined concepts for consequent changes in a policy towards disability.

Military conflicts increase the risk of injury and impairment and reduce access to healthcare systems, thus directly and indirectly affecting health and producing newly disabled people in the effected region. In a situation when key systems and services are destroyed, any untreated injury could lead to impairment (Kett 2010). Malnutrition, poor sanitation and widespread disease have highly adverse affects on health and enhance chances of irreversible damage (WRC 2008, Rockhold & McDonald, 2009, Miles 2013).

Notably, there are differences in attitudes towards disabled people whose impairments were due to military action and those who were disabled prior to a conflict or as a result of devastating living conditions. Indeed, a wide variety of researchers noted that states and humanitarian agencies prioritize those persons injured or impaired by conflict in the allocation of medical care, assistive devices, rehabilitation services and psychological support (Kett, 2010, ICRC, 2007, Rockhold & McDonald, 2009, WHO, 2013). “War wounded and amputees are more visible and attract attention of INGO… The majority of non-war disabled were excluded from these {humanitarian} programmes” (Kett, 2007, p.168).

Taken as a whole, however, during conflict and post-conflict periods, people with disabilities have a low priority and their needs usually overlooked by states and humanitarian workers. In the best scenario, policy towards disabled people in a post-conflict period comprises charitable attitude. They are perceived as one of vulnerable groups and treated with a ‘blanket approach’ without addressing the environment that produced the barriers (Kett, 2010, Kett, Ommeren 2009). Kett (2007) raised the issue of the equal rights of disabled people in post-conflict or post-emergency situations, starting from humanitarian assistance and aid distribution. “Basic needs are the same for all… It is how they are provided that makes the difference” (p.160). Researcher argues, “Disabled people … are seen as a group in need of specialist expertise or a vulnerable group, not as a group entitled to the same programmes and protected by the same rights as all others” (Kett, 2010, p.347)

At the same time, war and conflict produce some unexpected opportunities: they may be catalysts for the emergence of Disabled People’s Organizations (DPO) or the formation of self-help groups. Initially aiming to provide emergency relief and to satisfy the basic needs of disabled people, DPOs have a potential to grow and to promote equality and non-discriminatory policy on further levels (Kett, 2007, Kett, Ommeren, 2009).

In her own research (2007, 2009, 2010) as well as her contributions to larger studies (ICRC 2007), Kett raised the possibility that an emergency or conflict could be used as a chance for serious changes in disabled people’s lives. According to Kett, conflict, despite its devastating effect, could become an opportunity to re-build infrastructure, making it more accessible for disabled people, and to create more inclusive societies, involving disabled people or DPOs in reconstruction and the long-term development process.

Researchers of the World Health Organization, for example, applied the ‘build back better’ approach to the transformation of mental health care in post-conflict environments. In their study of 10 countries they noticed that in post-conflict environment the national government, international donors and media express concern regarding psychological response of the affected population to suffering and ongoing tragedy. With the attention of humanitarian agencies and the availability of financial recourses to provide psychological support, all that is needed is to stream these efforts in the right direction: “the surge of aid, combined with sudden, focused attention on the mental health of the population, creates unparalleled opportunities to transform mental health care for the long term” (WHO, 2013, p.4).

Kett and some other researchers also argue that there is a possibility to reconstruct damaged schools in a more inclusive way, both buildings and programmes, to provide disabled children a chance, together with their non-disabled peers, to use education as a protective mechanism in the situation of post-conflict chaos and trauma (Kett, 2007, Trani 2011, Miles, 2013).

It is estimated that armed conflicts kill and maim more children than soldiers, and that for every child who is killed, three are disabled (UNICEF, 1996, Who & World Bank, 2011). Many children acquire impairments in conflict period not because of military actions but as a result of devastating living conditions, poverty, insecurity, the loss of housing, lack of medical care and vaccinations, malnutrition, the destruction of infrastructure and supportive systems (Kett 2007, 2010, Trani et al, 2012). As disabled adults, children who were impaired before a conflict usually receive less attention than those with war-related disability; they are not a priority among the more urgent tasks in the conflict and post-conflict periods (World Vision, 2007 in Trani et al, 2011).

Not so long ago, emergency education was recognized as an important element in humanitarian response, protective mechanism and psychological support, providing a sense of normalcy and stability for children caught in military conflict. However, disabled children were again excluded from the education initiatives of international agencies (Kett, 2007, Trani et al, 2011, Albortz et al, 2011, Miles, 2013). They were often overlooked because of their invisibility and extremely low school enrolment prior to the conflict. It is estimated that one-third of out-of-school children are disabled (UNESCO, 2006).

According to the Save the Children report, half of the world’s out-of-school children live in conflict-affected states; a significant proportion of these children are disabled (2008).

Researchers in the area of disability and conflict note that post-conflict reconstruction could be a unique opportunity to interrupt the status quo and rebuild an education system as more inclusive. A stable political context could in fact make this task more difficult and leave discrimination unchallenged while the need to restore damaged or destroyed systems in war-affected regions could hypothetically facilitate this shift. “The physical reconstruction of schools would involve ensuring physical accessibility; the ideological reconstruction would involve the retraining of teachers so that they teach in more inclusive ways…” (Miles, 2013, p.802). In turn, the reconstruction of the education system could become a chance to “reconsider the way disabled people are treated in society” (ibid).

**2. Empirical studies**

Exploring post-conflict environment in different countries through the lens of the theory described above scholars have revealed the main tendencies, pitfalls and possible challenges in promoting inclusive education for disabled children in conflict-affected regions.

Alborz et al (2011) based on empirical study in Iraq described impediments in the transition from special education to inclusive education in the particular circumstances of a post-conflict environment. According to that study, in the context of a barely finished war, when many schools are destroyed or unsafe and others are overcrowded, when there is a shortage of all teachers not only those specially trained, when there is no transport available for children living in remote areas, the idea of inclusive education contradicts with old-fashioned views about what is best for disabled children. The division of responsibility between different ministries and services and the lack of sufficient investment in teacher training also hinder the promotion of an inclusive approach. The authors’ recommendations include pressure on national government and international aid agencies to promote inclusive education (Alborz et al, 2011).

However, this kind of approach is questionable and could be hindered by complex political relations. Kett (2010) described the situation in Sri Lanka where political tensions between the national government and international community negatively affected INGOs’ initiatives and financial investments.

The issue of the interrelationship of external actors, i.e. INGOs or agencies promoting a new rights-based approach, and national or local governments which are often not strong in post-conflict settings and do not have the necessary trust of the population, should be highlighted as one of the main challenges of post-conflict development. Additionally, security considerations may often contradict a human rights agenda, leaving the latter well behind.

Lack of cooperation with the government may, in turn, also raise the question about who owns the new approach and who is committed to implement inclusion, in the possible absence of foreign donors and agencies. Aid agencies at times ‘have been knowing to bypass governments and create parallel systems of mental service delivery… carrying the risk of undermining governments’ ability to function sustainably” (WHO, 2013, p. 98).

An over-reliance on donors and INGOs was listed among the key challenges of promoting the equality of disabled people in Sierra Leone. Zampaglione and Ovadiya’s report (2009, cited in Kett, 2010) pointed out the importance of the government’s decision to support inclusion, dedicating funding as well as political will to address disability beyond the existing policy framework. At the same time, there is a need to increase the capacity of local civil society organizations to be able to implement projects assisting inclusion and to monitor government policy (ibid).

“Nothing about us without us” is a well-known slogan of Disabled People’s Organisations. It is therefore vital to increase the capacity of newly created DPOs in conflict-affected states to be able to promote inclusion since other local NGOs could replicate the prevailing charitable approach of INGOs, which leads to the increased aid dependency of disabled people (Charlton, 1998, Kett, 2010).

Based on studies in Sri Lanka, Darfur and Sierra Leone, researchers note that it is better to introduce a rights-based inclusive approach, inclusive programmes and development in the early stages of post-conflict reconstruction, since they “may be more readily available in the immediate post-conflict phase when many UN agencies, donors, international financial institutions and NGOs are in the field”. It is more difficult to attract attention to inclusion later, when “media glare dies down and global attention moves elsewhere” (Kett, Ommeren, 2009, Kett, 2010, p. 348).

The other challenge is to attract the attention of those present to not only victims of war but to all disabled children in the region, despite the fact that the war-wounded and amputees are more visible (Kett, 2007). It is worth noting that war-related disability could generate negative attitudes among locals based on the perception that victims “deserved what they got” as in the case of former child soldiers in Liberia (ICRC, 2007, p.96). In seeking to promote inclusive education in war-torn societies, one must therefore address the complexity of disability with additional attention to how specific impairments were obtained.

A large study in Afghanistan revealed that children who were already at school when they became disabled were more likely to remain or to return to school whereas children with a congenital disability who never attended school have a low possibility of starting their education. Within schools, teachers and other children may demonstrate different attitudes towards some of the disabled students based on their type of impairment (Trani et al 2012).

The same study in Afghanistan revealed that the integration of children with physical impairments was easier then those with sensory or mental disabilities since the physical access of school facilities was the only problem for children with mobility impairments - “once in school the teaching methods are the same as the rest of the children” (Bakhshi, Trani, 2006).

In Afghanistan, efforts to promote the accessibility of schools were generally focused on building ramps and other special devices for physically disabled children since it was a “simple, one-time investment, and a quantifiable intervention, easily reported to donors” (Trani et al 2012, p. 359). However, universal access to school is not only limited by the physical accessibility of a building, it requires an adapted curriculum, new teaching methods, and an inclusive learning environment, especially for children with sensory and mental disabilities. It “requires more complex analysis, individualised processes and on-going support (material and human) and does not systematically yield similar quantifiable learning outcomes” (ibid). Moreover, learning outcomes are not a suitable measure of inclusion; the development of the personality, socialisation and mutual support are vital in conflict-affected regions.

Their acceptance in a class, the teachers’ attitudes and prejudice play a very important role in the adaptation of disabled children to mass schools. Kett (2010), analysing the situation in Darfur, paid attention to common misunderstandings about disability not only among teachers and other students but among the parents of disabled children who had low expectations of them and were reluctant to send them to school. The transition to inclusive education means not only raising awareness and training teachers, but often challenging the prevailing culture, including a school’s organisation and ethos (Alborz et al, 2011). It is questionable to what extent a conflict or emergency could lead to such significant changes, especially in communities with strong traditional and religious values.

Based on studies in Darfur and Sierra Leone, researchers noted that despite the fact that disabled children were included in national education policies, newly constructed schools were often not accessible to disabled children, were overcrowded and under-resourced and had teachers with poor motivation due to their very low salaries. Many schools were located in remote rural areas with limited transportation, with a subsequent need for family members to bring disabled children to school. Authors claimed that among the factors inhibiting inclusion was a lack of commitment by the international and national organisations involving in the promotion of inclusion. Even those agencies committed to promoting education perceived disabled children as one of many vulnerable groups in need of specific attention, not necessarily in terms of equal access to education (Trani et al, 2011).

The opportunity for the application of inclusive policy could be found in refugee camps where disabled children, who were previously hidden due to shame, become visible. Miles (2013) notes that in refugee camps, many international organisations are concentrated their attention on the needs of refugees in a context of less government control and many non-busy adults available as supporters. However, this opportunity is often also missed for the exact same reasons: INGOs and donors provide support for the disabled as one of many helpless and marginalised groups unable to exercise their equal rights. Disabled children are not specifically encouraged to attend mainstream schools, which are usually not equipped with appropriate teaching materials (like textbooks in Brail), specially trained supportive staff or a flexible curriculum (WRC, 2008). Sporadic attempts to pioneer new practices in education are commonly unable to change the system (Oh and van Der Stouwe, 2008, cited in Miles 2013). Nevertheless, Miles, with reference to other researchers, listed some positive changes in policy towards disabled people that were pioneered in refugee camps (Lee 1999, Azimi 2008).

At the same time, in her study of Iraq, researcher noticed, “number of disabled children living in refugee camps is small compared with those who remain in their home communities in conflict zones”, although the amount of literature dedicated to disabled refugees living in camps is significant (Miles, 2013, p. 804). Usually, there is more information available about refugees concentrated in one place such as an IDP camp with the constant attention of international agencies, than about people left behind at home in war-torn regions. To collect data on these disabled children, the types and causes of their impairments is a complex task for any humanitarian agency. It is therefore difficult and practically unattainable to provide an appropriate response based on an individual assessment of needs and possibilities (WRC, 2008).

The Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE) was established in 2000 and now embraces a task group on inclusive education aiming to support the rights of disabled children to be educated in mainstream schools. INEE has produced guidelines on inclusion in emergencies (2009) which listed such measures as the physical accessibility of school facilities, special training for teachers, and raising awareness about disability among teachers, parents, communities, national and local authorities and humanitarian actors (Trani et al, 2011). However, members of this Task group recognize that it was not sufficient to provide a legal framework and standards to imply inclusion and asked about results, “steps need to be taken to make them a reality” (Pinnok, Hodgkin, 2010, p.34). The reality is generally reluctant: on the way of inclusive education of disabled children is widespread perception that neither the conflict nor post-conflict reconstruction period is a suitable time to practice a new approach and change the system. Since education in emergency is a relatively new humanitarian response, the methods and tools are still in the process of being developed (ibid). At the same time, other scholars are confident that the lack of inclusion of disability in a post-conflict context represents a missed opportunity (Trani et al 2011, Miles, 2013).

**III. Background**

A post-conflict environment is not a blank slate. There were institutions and services existed before the war, moreover, the practical experiences, positive as well as negative could not be neglected and forgot.

The pre-war situation of disabled children in the Chechen Republic was tightly intertwined with the situation of disabled children in the entire Russian Federation and the recently collapsed USSR. Given the common history, approaches, rules, and practices, it is therefore relevant to start from a brief overview of disability issues in the Russian Federation.

**1. Disability issues in Russia at the turn of 90s:**

**1.1 Disabled children and residential institutions**

The status of a disabled child (rebenok-invalid) in the USSR was established only in 1979, following the UN requirements. The Soviet government approved ‘The list of medical indicators recognizing a child before 16 years old as disabled and eligible for the special pension’ offered by the Ministry of Health. According to that list, children with very severe and incurable congenital diseases were classified as disabled. The registration and statistical data collection of these children began in 1980, when the medical board for the examination of disabled adults was re-organized to include paediatricians (Shmidt, 2014, Roudik, 2007).

In 1990, the number of disabled children in Russia was about 155,100 Nevertheless, this estimate was limited since the system reported beneficiaries and not those with physical impairments (UNICEF, 2005).

The more reliable sources of data considered to be resident institutions with different profiles and subordinations where children with impairments resided long before 1979. These included boarding schools administered by the Ministry of Education, hospitals and children’s homes run by the Ministry of Health, and boarding homes under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Development *(Appendix 2)* (Thomson, 2002, Shmidt, 2014, UNICEF, 2005).

In turn, schools were divided into eight types according to the different types of disabilities. There were schools for the blind, partially-sighted, deaf, and hearing-impaired, for children orthopedically impaired and intellectually impaired but educable and others, all academically supported (Anderson, 1987, Shmidt, 2014).

Despite the USSR’s long history of universal access to education and its high enrolment rates, the Soviet approach to disability was based on the medical model and its attitude to the education of disabled children determined by ‘defectology’ (Grigorenko, 1998, UNICEF, 2005). Boarding schools concentrated all services at one place and offered rehabilitation together with special profession-oriented education that sought to adapt disabled children to existing barriers in society (UNICEF, 2012, Shmidt, 2014). Critics of this system argued that it focused on “changing disabled individuals rather than their social and physical environments” (UNICEF, 2005, p.39).

The decision about where to place a disabled child was made by the previously mentioned special medical board (an agency of medical-social expertise) that defined the criteria for admission to special schools (Anderson, 1987, Rasell, Iarskaya-Smirnova, 2014, Shmidt, 2014). A common practice was to convince the parents of a child with severe impairments (especially intellectual) to abandon him/her in the maternity clinics (UNICEF 2005).

Russia’s mainstream education system was not adjusted to the needs of disabled children and did not permit children with specific impairments to be educated in a mass school (Roudik, 2007). Yet, at the same time, the system of special schools was accessible to every disabled child and free of charge, being financed by the government.

In 1987, the Resolution of the Central Committee of the Communist Party approved the specialised assistance for disabled children by speech therapists, social pedagogues, psychologists and other professionals, who were the only specialists with the right of access to disabled children (Shmidt, 2014).

In 90s and later in the beginning of 2000, tens of legislative acts at different levels were formally accepted, guaranteeing the equality of disabled children and their right to receive education according to their choice, although there was unfortunately a lack of implementing policy for these legislations. In practice, mainstream schools denied access to disabled children, arguing that special schools were better equipped, with specially educated teachers and specialists (Roudik, 2007).

The introduction of their legal status provided the families of disabled children with financial support that could make them independent from residential institutions, although inaccessible environments, shame and stigma also inhibited those children from leading a normal life, and specific boarding schools represented the only real possibility to obtain an education (Shmidt, 2014, UNICEF, 2005).

In 2008 Russia signed the Convention on the Rights of persons with Disabilities although until its ratification in 2012 attitudinal as well as physical barriers remained serious obstacles to the implementation of inclusion. The segregation of disabled children was almost unchanged, and the number of special schools had increased since inclusive approach inevitably contradicted with the strong Soviet system of special education. In addition, the weak social welfare system and the lack of community-based rehabilitation services increased the tendency among parents of disabled children to be resistant to new approaches. Strong traditions, including the unchanged attitudes of teachers, parents and society as a whole, outweighed some attempts of NGOs to promote a new approach (UNICEF, 2012, Rasell, Iarskaia-Smirnova, 2014).

**1.2. Disabled people’s organizations**

The first large survey of disabled people conducted by the Soviet Ministry of labour in 1990/91 revealed that about 50 per cent of respondents did not known about the existence of the Non-Governmental Organization of Disabled people (Dobrovolskaya, Shabalina, 1991).

However, at the end of the Soviet era, there was a net of three large national organizations – the All-Russian Society of the Deaf (VOG), the All-Russian Society of the Blind (VOS) and the newly created All-Russian Society of Disabled People (VOI). The creation and development of the VOG and VOS in the 1920s were inspired and supported by the state; they were financed by the government and loyal to its ideas of development. Neither of these non-governmental organizations raised the issues of human rights or discrimination, but instead they initiated and participated in social programmes to provide support and promote employment for disabled people (Fröhlich, 2010, p. 175).

The All-Russian Society of Disabled People (VOI) represented the interests of physically impaired people. It was created from the bottom, by the disabled people's movement for their equal rights, and registered only in 1988 (Deryugin, 1998). Fröhlich (2010) argued that as VOI has become interconnected with state structures and financed by the government, it stopped focusing on human rights issues and concentrated its efforts on local problems, e.g. employment, social support, the accessibility of public infrastructure.

**2. Disability issues in the Chechen Republic on the cusp of 90s**

**2.1. Disabled children**

It was not possible to estimate the exact number of disabled children in Chechnya due to the limitations described above as well as some other factors. At the beginning of 90s, the Chechen–Ingush Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic united two neighbouring ethnic formations. Hence, any numbers were related to common data. Additionally, medical statistics of that period were (and still are) classified. Local archives were destroyed by military actions.

There was a special Boarding school for blind and partially sighted children in Grozny, the capital of the republic. It was established in 1936 and designed for 120 students. As one of the oldest teachers recalled, the boarding school was always full, accepting children from neighbouring republics and regions: the republic of Dagestan, the North Ossetia, Stavropol region, since the school was perceived as one of the best in North Caucasus. Local students came from mountain villages and far removed districts, spent the week at school and returned to their families for the weekend. There were a few orphans and it was a common practice for the teachers to take them home at the weekends. The school was administered and financed by the Chechen-Ingush Ministry of education, quite well equipped and staffed. It had a library with textbooks, fiction and non-fiction literature in Brail, including the works of famous classical Russian writers and poets. Almost all of the teachers had a university degree.

After finishing vocational training at the boarding school, students could attempt to find a job at the enterprises of the local branch of VOS (Zaitov, 2014).

The Boarding school for deaf and hearing-impaired children existed in the republic from 1938. It was located in a village, Starye Atagi, and later relocated to Grozny. The school was designed for 150 students although there were never more then 137, according to the testimony of one teacher who has worked in the school for more than 50 years. It was well equipped and staffed with teachers who all had special education including sign language. They utilised a special curriculum for deaf students that has been changed only twice in half a century. Nevertheless, the institution was ‘in the good books’ and scientific conferences were organized on the base of the Chechen-Ingush Boarding school for the deaf.

Students enrolled in this school came from local villages and towns as well as from neighbouring regions: Stavropol, Pyatigorsk, and the Republic of Dagestan. The boarding school worked year round without weekends and many students from afar spent weekends and even vacations at school thereby generally detached from their communities. The school offered a complete secondary education and had a kindergarten where children from the age of four years were enrolled to prepare for school. Additionally, the institution had sewing and carpentry workshops in which graduating students could receive a professional licence. They had an opportunity to work in the special enterprises of the local branch of the VOG of in local factories or handicrafts workshops. According to the teacher, students had regular joint meetings and activities with children from mass schools (Paizullaeva, 2014).

The Chechen-Ingush Republic had its own Boarding schools for mentally backward but educable children. The main school, which was designed for 360 students and located in Grozny, was established in the 1930s. There were three other schools in different districts of the republic, designed for 50-60 students each.

These schools were administered and financed by the republic’s Ministry of Education and had a special curriculum of ‘auxiliary schools’ for mentally impaired children. There were no children with severe learning difficulties since such children were perceived as uneducable (Thomson, 2002). About 30 per cent of students were orphans (or abandoned children) while the remaining 70 per cent had families in different parts of the republic. Usually, these students spent the weekends at home; the other students lived in the school constantly. According to the headmaster who worked in the school for around 25 years, the school also had its own sewing and carpentry workshops and assigned professional licences to students upon graduation. Despite the large number of low-skilled jobs in local factories, less than 50 per cent of this school alumni were able to find employment (Tohaeva, 2014).

From 1935, the Auxiliary daily school, which was also run by the Ministry of Education, was located in Grozny. According to school’s web-site, in 90s, there were 200 students with mild intellectual impairments, from dyslexia and dysgraphia to other learning difficulties.

Finally, there was an orphanage for disabled children, or Infant House #2 in contrast with Infant House #1 designed for non-disabled orphans. The orphanage was established in 1934 and designed for 100 children, mostly those abandoned in maternity hospitals because of their impairments. It was administered and financed by the Ministry of Health. The school was supposed to keep the children until they were four years of age but often 9 to 10 year old children still lived at the orphanage. As the chief doctor, who worked at the school for a long time, noted, the large proportion of children had cerebral palsy, but later, she accepted children with different intellectual impairments including Down syndrome (Abdulaeva, 2014). There was a polio outbreak in Chechen-Ingush Republic in 1982, after which many children with polio-related disabilities were sent to the orphanage (Russian Information Agency, 2010).

According to the testimonies of specialists working in the area of children’s disability in Chechnya at the turn of 90s, many disabled children, particularly those with intellectual impairments and cerebral palsy, were segregated and hidden by their families who preferred to keep them at home. Some families were ashamed of their intellectually disabled children, while others, especially in mountain villages, were not aware that such children could be rehabilitated, socialized and educated. Some families had a prejudice against institutions, assuming that children could not receive proper care in such places.

**2.2. Disabled people’s organizations**

The Chechen-Ingush branch of the VOS (All-Russian Society of the Blind) was established in 1932. The Society had its own enterprises and a residential institution where blind people could live and work. There was a special club for blind people that offered different activities including sports and tourism, and a library with approximately 200,000 books in Brail (Estamirov, 2012, Lipina, 2007).

The Chechen-Ingush branch of the VOG (All-Russian Society of the Deaf) was established in 1957, when about 2,000 deaf people were identified in the republic. Aiming to provide them with vocational training and employment, in 1972, the local VOG established the Training and Production Enterprise (Grozny Inform, 2013).

The Chechen-Ingush branch of the VOI (All-Russian Society of Disabled People) was established in 1988 and received government subsidies for its activity. In 1992, it started self-financing with the support of the state (Azdaeva, 2014).

**IV. Research design and methodology**

This thesis was designed as a case study with defined theory applied to the specific place, framework, target group and particular conditions. Living in the Russian Federation, I have chosen the Chechen Republic during it post-conflict reconstruction period, from late 1999 (the end of the active phase of war) to 2012, when the Russian government ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and positive measures were officially launched towards disabled people from above.

Using the method outlined by Yin (1994) and Blaikie (2000), I explored, described and analysed the changes affecting a specific group of the population situated in particular circumstances and conditions – namely, the schooling of disabled children in a post-war environment. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected although the research is based primarily on qualitative information due to the questionable precision of figures.

Both field-based and desk-based research methods were utilised, including journalistic efforts to collect data. Being restricted by employment commitments, I visited Chechnya twice, in March and in July 2014, five days each time. The initial, preliminary visit served to identify a circle of key informants and sources in the Republic. Meetings and interviews helped to direct further research and to guide the configuration of the thesis.

During the second visit, structured and unstructured interviews with open-ended questions were conducted with key informants in their offices. Due to the lack of available documentation on the functioning of schools in the pre-conflict and conflict periods, a set of standard questions was prepared for the structured interviews with schools’ representatives to elicit statistics and other facts related to the defined timeframes (*Appendix 3*). Less rigid then a questionnaire, these open-ended questions allowed respondents the freedom to choose their own words (Overton, Diermen, 2014). Other interviews were predominantly unstructured with questions modified according to an interviewee’s responses. As noted by Bernard (2012), these interviews allowed data to be clarified, revealed respondents’ opinions and assumptions, allowing them to narrate their own stories and sometimes led to quite unexpected discoveries.

**Key informants for this study:**

Representatives of the Ministry of Education – 2

Representative of the Ministry of Labour (Social welfare Department) – 1

Representative of the Medical Social Board - 1

Schools’ directors or representatives - 4

NGO leaders or representatives – 5

Rehabilitation Centre representative – 1

Centre of Psychological assistance representative – 1

Representative of the Orphanage - 1

Parents of disabled children - 4

Additionally, I received several reports from governmental institutions and NGOs; visited some disabled children in their homes, visited school #18 as well as the Centre of psychological assistance and the Republican rehabilitation centre for disabled children.

Inevitably, some new questions evolved in the course of exploration and as a consequence, I re-contacted many key informants via telephone and e-mail to gather additional information.

Apart from facts, the key informants were asked about their opinions, perceptions and views. Recognizing that this data could be biased, it was important to seek alternative ways of interpreting findings and competing explanations of the evidence (De Vaus, 2001)

Desk-based research was therefore vital to crosscheck the information received and to reveal more precise data on Chechnya’s post-conflict reconstruction period. Using the Internet resource Relief Web I downloaded situation reports and donors updates from the UNICEF field office in the North Caucasus region from 1999 to 2007 as well as some reports from the international agencies and non-governmental organisations (INGOs). I also utilized UNICEF and WHO reports assessing the efforts of their field offices in the region.

Some important data was revealed through such open sources as the web-sites of Chechen ministries, schools, NGOs and rehabilitation centres. Their annual reports, published on the Internet, essentially supported the information provided by their representatives.

Finally, media sources, both official and independent, were utilized to reveal facts.

**V. Ethical considerations**

Any issue related to disabled people is highly sensitive and should be explored with the use of proper terminology and expressions. Working in a disabled persons’ organization I’m very aware of this issue and able to use the appropriate terms and etiquette in communicating with my interlocutors.

More complicated were discussions of the circumstances of the military conflict since the war remains a raw wound for many Chechens, especially those who were injured or lost family members. As a Russian researcher from Moscow I felt the weight of my country’s gilt.

**VI. Limitations**

I would have liked the opportunity to conduct whole scale research using a survey or structured questionnaires in local schools and rehabilitation centres. However this process would require more resources that I had available as a distance learning student. Consequently my study is closer to journalist work in terms of its methods and results.

Scarce data was the most serious limitation. Local archives were destroyed and even the Statistical Service of the Chechen Republic did not retain some information. As a result, the quantitative data collected from different sources was often conflicting and not reliable.

**VII. Findings and Analysis**

**1. Preconditions for humanitarian intervention**

**1.1. Insurgency. Military conflicts**

In 1991 Chechnya proclaimed its independence. The following decade, however, plunged the Republic into chaos and instability, interspersed with two bloody wars.

The economy virtually ruined as were medical and social protection services due to a lack of both finance and qualified personnel, since most non-Chechen specialists left the Republic (Kosikov, Kosikova, 1999). The ethnic Russian population decreased from 269,000 to 60,000 in the 10 years following independence (Forced Migration, 1999).

A period of instability was followed by the intervention of Russian Federal troops. Grozny and many other towns were severely damaged, almost demolished by bombing and shelling. In 1995, fighting areas moved to the mountains. A peace agreement was signed in 1996 but in 1999, after a series of explosions in Moscow, Federal troops returned to Chechnya. The period between these two active phases of military conflict was characterized by constant violence, theft, banditry, armed robbery and kidnapping. According to the Russian Human Rights commission, at that time, Chechnya was not effectively a subject of the Russian Federation (ibid).

**1.2. Victims**

The UN Commission on Human Rights expressed its deep concern over the excessive and disproportionate use of force causing a high number of deaths and injuries among civilians:

“…in Chechnya during the period from September 1994 to February 1995, 4.6 per cent of all civilians wounded were children, while from February through May 1995, children were an appalling 40 per cent of all civilian casualties. Many children reportedly manifested emotional and functional psychosomatic disturbances and other forms of disorder” (UN, 1996, VIII F, 2, 73).

The UN Special Representative for Children and Armed Conflict estimated that 500,000 landmines were placed in Chechnya (Otunnu, 2002, cited in Landmine Monitor, 2003). The most accurate number of mines’ casualties was considered to be 3,132 including 731 killed and 2,401 maimed, 772 of whom were children under 17 years (Voice of the Mountain, 2014).

It was reported that “around 49% of mine/UXO casualties require a lower limb amputation, 26% an upper limb amputation, and 14% suffer a loss of eye sight as a result of their injuries, and the 15 to 29-year-old age group is the most affected” (Landmine monitor, 2003).

As a result of the hostilities and the destruction of housing and civilian infrastructure as a whole, more than 300,000 people (over 30% of the population of the Republic) were displaced internally or to neighbouring republics, living in IDP camps, spontaneous settlements or with ‘host families’. In the early 2000s, there was still a high number of 200,000 IDPs in the Republic of Ingushetia (Broughton, 2003).

These years were characterized by a deterioration in living conditions, the destruction of life-support systems, widespread infectious diseases and malnutrition, the absence of regular health care and consequently, by a high level of children’s mortality and morbidity (Goyet & Phelan, 2002, Kosikov & Kosikova, 1999). A significant increase in pathologies was observed among children born in that period, with a greatest number of congenital impairments occurring among children born during active hostility (Tsybulskaya & Khatsieva, 2009).

In 1995, due to the lack of vaccinations, the Republic experienced an outbreak of polio, affecting 150 children under seven years of age, six of whom died (Russian Information Agency, 2010).

**1.3. Schools, Boarding schools and institutions**

The educational system significantly suffered even before the military hostilities: many schools were evicted from their premises, many teachers left while those who remained were not paid for months. During the active phase of war, schools were closed then reopened (Forced migration, 1999).

By the end of 1999, 325 of 462 schools had been destroyed, 70 almost completely (Borisov & Yachmennikova, 1999).

In interviews, representatives from boarding schools for disabled children reported an outflow of qualified Russian specialists, the termination of funding and the loss of school premises. The number of students significantly declined and they no longer stayed overnight. Schools received finance for a short period in 1995, after which the funding once again stopped. A few remaining teachers worked for free. The Boarding school for blind children was transferred to a partly destroyed building of a former kindergarten. In 1995, only 20-25 children returned there, in 2000 about 40 children. The Boarding school for deaf children had 56 students in 1995/96 and about 80 students in 2000 (Paizullaeva, Zaitov, 2014). The building of the Auxiliary school in Grozny completely destroyed in 1994 after which the school stopped functioning.

“As soon as active hostilities were stopped we resumed functioning. Parents were looking for us and asked to teach their children. We had classes in private houses, other survived buildings. In 1996-1999 transportation was difficult because children with parents were stopped on checkpoints, their documents often were confiscated. Parents brought them anyway wanting children to have education” (Paisullaeva, 2014).

Children from the Boarding school for the mentally retarded were generally taken to their families or relatives. Only 30 orphans remained and survived the heavy bombing of January 1995 by hiding in a cellar. Later, under shelling, they were evacuated to a similar boarding school in the neighbouring Republic of Ingushetia. In 1995, about 90 children returned and the boarding school changed locations several times, functioning without funding through assistance of parents and with scarce humanitarian aid and some donations. After 1996 the number of children again decreased due to the insecurity of transportation. In October 1999, the school was again closed. The children, including new orphans, were taken home by the parents or caregivers (Tohaeva, 2014).

Children from Orphanage #2 were evacuated to the neighbouring Republic of Dagestan at the beginning of the first war (Abdulaeva, 2014).

**1.4. Emergence of local NGOs and DPOs**

Researchers from the Watson Institute reporting from Chechnya, noted, that after 1995, humanitarian agencies were located in the neighbouring republics of Ingushetia, North Ossetia and Dagestan but not in Chechnya. Other sources remarked that movement within the borders of Chechnya was limited by insecurity and the complicated procedures to obtain travel documents. From April 1995 to July 1999, 52 Russian and expatriate aid workers were kidnapped, with 10 killed. The increased military clashes forced many international organizations working in the Republic to curtail their activities and withdraw staff (Hansen & Seely, 1996, Broughton, 2003, Diallo, 1999).

Combatants, the authorities and even the suffering people themselves poorly understood the mission and benefits of humanitarian operations generally perceiving INGOs as spies and therefore with hostility (Hunsen & Seely, 1996).

In these circumstances, local NGOs, previously existing or newly created, had a comparative advantage and performed the vast majority of field operations in Chechnya.

The Russian Children’s Foundation (RCF) launched the programme ‘Front-line Children of Chechnya’, aiming to find seriously injured and maimed children and to provide them with highly qualified medical assistance, rehabilitation and prosthetics, if needed, as well as psychological assistance and social adaptation. According to the coordinator of this programme, more than 1,000 wounded children were located: 585 were hospitalized in clinics, 89 received high quality prostheses, 220 were provided with skilled medical consultations. Personal banking accounts were opened for 72 disabled children and a fundraising campaign successfully filled them with money (RCF, 2006). Many Russian philanthropists and wealthy Chechens living abroad made considerable donations to assist maimed children (Diallo, 1999).

The leader of the NGO ‘Voice of the Mountain’ stated that it began collecting data on mine victims from 1998, participated in special trainings under the UNICEF umbrella and in 2002, became its main partner in the Mine Programme in Chechnya, assisting mine survivors younger than 20 years of age.

Another prominent Chechen NGO, ‘Let’s Save the Generation’ (LSG), also worked with UNICEF, Handicap International and others focusing on psychological assistance for landmine victims, for which it established a specialised rehabilitation centre (Roberts, 2002).

The NGO Serlo searched for homeless children in the ruins of demolished city and organized their social and psychological rehabilitation; it later worked also with young landmine survivors (Serlo, 2014).

There were tens of other NGOs, Chechen and Ingush, ‘mushrooming’ in these highly complex conditions, often “relying on one-person’s dedication or ‘interest’ and therefore short-lived. Many of them concentrated on providing psychological support since it didn’t require special qualifications or equipment” (Goyet & Phelan, 2002, p.9).

**2. Post-conflict reconstruction**

**2.1. Political situation and security**

In 2000 the war was formally over although the situation in the Republic remained tense. Regular situation reports from UNICEF included risk assessments indicating that the power of the interim government was being challenged by sporadic violence, the murder of officials and members of the new law enforcement structures, terrorist attacks on government buildings and ambushes on Federal troops and authorities. The first elected president was killed by an explosion. All state services were closed for months during election campaigns (UNICEF, 2000-2005). The Chechen authorities had to find a balance between seeking the support of the population and demonstrating their loyalty to Federal authorities to gain trust and attract investment for the Republic’s reconstruction. The activity of humanitarian organizations in the region was also restrained, sometimes hampered and even blocked. After some of the attacks in 2004 international staff were temporarily relocated even from the neighbouring republic of Ingushetia, while local staff stopped working (European Commission, 2004b, UNICEF, 2004e).

Due to the high level of insecurity United Nations’ agencies in the region were located on the other side of the Republic’s borders and heavily relied on their counterparts in local civil society (UN, 2000).

In the autumn of 2003, the local authorities of Ingushetia temporarily confiscated several computers from international agencies allegedly to check the legality of software (PINF, 2003a). In May 2004, as a result of an incident in IDP camp, the Saudi Red Crescent did not renew its registration and stopped all of its activities in Chechnya (European Commission, 2004a).

**2.2. Schooling in the post-conflict environment**

In Chechnya’s post-conflict reconstruction period UNICEF became the leading agency in the education sector and provided coordination, information and assistance to other organizations, including international and local NGOs working in this area. Its offices were deployed in the republics of North Ossetia and Ingushetia from the autumn of 1999 (UNICEF, 2003d, 2007b).

One of the tasks was the reconstruction and rehabilitation of school buildings in the Republic. Thousands of school-aged children in IDP camps and settlements in Ingushetia also required facilities for study since local schools were not able to accept the huge number of additional students. According to UNICEF’s reports, initially, there was a network of 59 tented and wooden schools for IDP children in Ingushetia equipped with special ‘school-in-a-box’ kits and other necessary supplies. In Chechnya, most children attended classes in alternative, often unsuitable premises (rented private houses or module constructions) and were without textbooks, school furniture and supplies. Nevertheless, in 2002, 72% of school-age children in Chechnya were enrolled in regular or NGO-run schools although the level of enrolment was higher in IDP camps (Broughton, 2003, UNICEF, 2002a, 2003a).

The gradual return of IDPs to Chechnya in 2003-2004 and the increasing school-age population overburdened the capacity of the already insufficient schools, where the lack of physical infrastructure was the main constraint. Classes were overcrowded, children studied in three shifts and the shortage of teachers and textbooks significantly hampered the educational process (Broughton, 2003). Reports from UNICEF and the Ministry of Education (MoE) indicate that in 2006, 343 of 456 schools operated in two shifts, 92 schools – in three shifts. (UNICEF, 2006a).

Teachers for temporary schools in Ingushetia were found among the IDPs. Despite the difficult and stressful conditions, the quality of teaching was reasonably good thanks to the highly motivated teachers and school staff. At the same time the scarcity of teaching guides and manuals was reported and special trainings organized to update teachers in the latest methodologies and skills. At the end of March 2003, in Nalchik (Republic of Kabardino-Balkaria) Caritas International convened a seminar for administrators and 300 teachers working in Grozny. In particular, they received guidelines in approaches to vulnerable children. Later, UNICEF in cooperation with several NGOs introduced teachers of Chechnya, Ingushetia and Dagestan to child-centred teaching methodologies, which aimed to take into account individual features, learning styles and interests of everyone. 40 training events were organized to raise the quality of schooling (UNICEF, 2002d, 2003c, 2004a, 2004b, 2005b). In the Achkhoi-Martan district of Chechnya, a series of trainings was held to raise awareness among the 72 participating teachers of the Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNICEF, 2004d).

As early as 2002, UNICEF noted that several thousand children in IDP camps did not attend school for numerous reasons. There were children engaged in bread-winning activities for their families as well as those who “have been affected by repeated displacements and missed many school years, or children with physical or mental problems whose parents were embarrassed to send them to school. The majority were adolescents” (UNICEF, 2002b). Later, UNICEF reported that it had encouraged the reintegration of out-of-school children and adolescents into the educational system or vocational trainings. 65% of such children in IDP camps attended supplementary classes to catch up with their peers. Some other school ‘drop-outs’ were offered vocational trainings and sports activities. However, the reports did not specify if there were previously hidden children with physical or mental problems among them (UNICEF, 2003b, 2005b).

**2.3. Mine survivors and other war victims**

From the very beginning of the humanitarian response, UNICEF as well as other international agencies and organizations, placed at the centre of their agenda the needs of children who were victims of landmines or unexploded ordnances (UXO) or who were maimed due to active military actions. Many children were transported to Vladikavkaz (North Ossetia) for highly skilled surgery or prosthetic assistance. UNICEF and WHO supported a prosthetic workshop in Vladikavkaz, providing logistical and technical equipment (UNICEF, 2001b). Later with the support of UNICEF and funding by DFID, the prosthetic workshop in Grozny was reconstructed and treatment provided annually to 200-250 disabled people (UNICEF, 2007a). Handicap International provided individual support to 63 beneficiaries in Ingushetia and Chechnya, delivering wheelchairs, walking frames and crutches for allocation among hospitals and NGOs working with disabled people. Assistive devices for mine victims were provided by many other NGOs through their local counterparts (WHO, 2003).

The personnel of the NGO ‘Voice of the Mountain’ (VoM) was trained to manage the UN International Management System for Mine Action database and worked for several years on gathering information about UXO/mine incidents in Chechnya. According to their findings, a significant number of victims were children of school age. Further assessment revealed the very poor mental health of mine victims that required an immediate response. The leader of this NGO said that, in cooperation with the computer college of Grozny, VoM organized courses for mine victims where they received psychological assistance and had the opportunity of developing computer skills and studying English. Graduates of these courses were accepted to the college without entrance exams. According to the college’s former director,

“there were children maimed by war: amputees, burnt, with post-traumatic syndrome. It wasn’t easy to convince them and their parents not to hide at home. UNICEF put a condition for these courses - indispensable participation of non-disabled children, to place our amputees in normal environment for social and psychological rehabilitation”.

The People in Need Foundation (PINF) in cooperation with the local NGO ‘Mountain Spring’ launched a UNICEF-funded carpentry workshop for mine survivors living in IDP camps in Ingushetia (PINF, 2003b). Local branch of VOI, with financial support form the German government and USAID, ran a workshop for disabled girls to acquire tailoring skills and, for disabled boys, training in carpentry, funded by the Dutch National Committee and DFID (UNICEF, 2005c, VOI, 2006). The chief of VOI recollected:

“We taught girls who were victims of mines together with others including some girls with hearing impairments. They understood each other very well and at the end of courses many girls could use sign language”.

The NGO Serlo ran similar vocational trainings in tailoring, carpentry and accounting with financial support from European Commission Humanitarian Aid & Civil Protection (ECHO) (UNICEF, 2006b). A Serlo leader recounted that generally, vocational trainings and classes were widespread in Chechnya supporting mine survivors, war victims and children who had missed several school years because of constant displacement.

Many amputees returned to school or were assigned to school and received education at home. In a meeting of UNICEF representatives with the Chechen Ministry of Education, directors of high schools were advised to assist landmine survivors in seeking access to higher education. Later, universities of Chechnya provided a 3% entrance quota for disabled students (UNICEF, 2003e, VOI, 2006).

**2.4. Psychological assistance**

Even without precise data it was estimated that about 80-90% of children in Chechnya required psychological assistance due to the trauma of living through years of insecurity and war (PINF, 2002).

CARE International with the NGO ‘New Education’ worked with children from IDP camps, visiting the Psychological Centre in Vladikavkaz. Children’s parents were simultaneously enrolled in the programme to achieve comprehensive family coverage (UNICEF, 2002c).

Initially, in Chechnya, adequate psychological and psychiatric assistance was not available due to the lack of appropriate professionals and training to upgrade the skills of the few existing psychiatrists. Geographical remoteness also hindered the provision of assistance to victims. Handicap International (HI) organized a special workshop for psychologists, social- and NGO-workers “Psychological support of people with war injury and disability”. HI also regionally distributed posters aimed at promoting the social inclusion of disabled people (WHO, 2003).

In 2002, PINF began rehabilitation of special school in Grozny for children with intellectual problems. At that time, only 24 of 450 students attended classes in a private apartment and among them were children who were not mentally disabled but were suffering from with post-traumatic syndrome. PINF noted that school developed capacity for covering special needs of any children and could be included into the regular educational scheme with the support of international humanitarian community. At the end of that year, in five schools rehabilitated by PINF, psychosocial centres operated where professional psychologists conducted therapeutic sessions and individual consultations for children, parents and teachers (PINF, 2002).

CARE Canada conducted groups for highly traumatized children and their parents providing them with psychological counselling at the library of VOS. CARE, with financial support from DFID and the US Bureau of Population, Refugees and Migration (BPRM), established the ‘Believe in you’ Centre encouraging the participation of disabled children to increase their self-esteem (UNICEF, 2003f, 2004c).

Many local NGOs implemented projects for the psychological rehabilitation of children, organizing sport, cultural, social and recreational activities in IDP camps with support of UNICEF and other humanitarian organizations (UNICEF, 2000). VoM established a football team for amputees, reported an NGO’s leader:

“At first we barely convinced 3-4 boys to participate in the training. They were 10-12 years old and didn’t want to be seen. We invited them with parents, and psychologists worked with them. Gradually they got carried away and we formed two football teams of amputees in Chechnya”.

Later amputees from this team graduated from colleges or vocational courses; approximately one third went to university.

However, not all children managed to overcome the psycho-trauma related to disability. As a representative from RCF informed,

“Marha was 2 years old when as a result of shelling she lost both legs. Her mother was killed at the same instant. Father and brothers brought her up. Marha received schooling at home. Anyway girl remained deeply depressed and cut off from the community”.

Meanwhile UNICEF experienced a shortage of funding. In 2001, 60% of its requirements were unfunded; in 2006, agency reported that as most of its financial requirements were unmet, some projects would remain on hold, including financial support to LSG’s rehabilitation centre (UNICEF, 2001a, 2006a).

**2.5. Pensions and benefits**

From 1995 to 2000, disabled people in Chechnya were generally deprived of Russian pensions and benefits established according to Federal laws #181 and #199 of 1995 and 1999, respectively. In 2000, pensions were resumed although the issue of benefits remained unresolved long-term. One problem was the absence in the Republic of a legislative branch until 2005. Moreover, during two election campaigns, most government structures and institutions ceased operations for months (VOI, 2006).

Based on the relevant legislation of neighbouring republics, the Department of Social Welfare of the Chechen Ministry of Labour (MoL) developed a programme, ‘Children of Chechnya’, which was accepted by the Republic’s government although without defined financial sources for implementation (Gagalov, 2014, VOI, 2006).

For some years, pensions remained one of the most important if not the only source of livelihood in the ruined Republic whose poverty threshold was US$ 0.70-1.10 per person per day (UNICEF, 2004e). However, the pension received by disabled children was comparatively low.

Magomed was 9 years old when in 2004 he lost his leg because of a mine explosion. The only livelihood of his family of 7 was Magomed’s pension of US$ 150 per month (Dosh, 2008).

Those children disabled by military conflicts were not officially recognized as ‘victims of war’, which entitled them to a higher pension. All such children received certificates stating ‘common disease’ as the reason for their impairments. The families of disabled children complained that they were forced to wait for years to receive the certificate and sometimes needed to bribe the medical board responsible for the diagnosis of disability and distribution of relevant documents. Among other problems was the absence of medicine, the low quality of the prosthetics produced by the Grozny workshop and the difficulties in receiving replacement prosthetics (Gagalov, 2014, Dosh, 2008).

**2.6. Rehabilitation institutes**

In 2006 UNICEF launched the process of the de-institutionalisation of children living in orphanages and rehabilitation centres. In accordance with Federal law #207, foster families received a one-time payment of US$260 and a monthly allowance of about US$216 per child (UNICEF, 2007a). This financial incentive, together with the mono-ethnic structure of the population led to a significant decrease in the number of orphans placed in institutions. Almost all interviewees confirmed that according to Chechen tradition, a child who lost his/her parents stayed with his extended family. The high level of unemployment meant that family members were available to care for such children as well as for their own.

Nevertheless, open sources indicate that some disabled children remained institutionalised, living months or years in rehabilitation centres, run by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

Before the conflict there was a large residential institution (Psycho-neurological) in Chechen town Shali designed for 430 adult patients (Lipina, 2007). In 2012, the institution received eight new buildings and was divided (by a fence) into a Rehabilitation centre for children with special needs (SRC) (designed for 100 patients) and a rehabilitation centre for 350 adults. The director of Orphanage #2 and a representative of the MoE confirmed that children aged 10 years and older were transferred from Orphanage to SRC, with many of them remaining there for years (SRC, 2014).

The Children’s Social Rehabilitation Centre (SSRC) located in Shali on the neighbouring street was opened in 2001 and designed to treat 100 children with psycho-neurological problems. The centre’s annual report informed that most of the contingent (88 of 98 in 2014) consisted of ‘social orphans’ whose parents were deprived of their parenting rights or who had officially abandoned their children (SSRC, 2015).

The Medical Social Rehabilitation Centre for children with special needs in Argun (AMSRC) was opened in 2003 and, according to its website, treated 90 children with cerebral palsy, nervous system problems and underdeveloped speech abilities. It was assumed that children received special treatment and then returned home although treatment could last several months (AMSRC, 2014).

The only Centre designed to keep children with one of parents is the newly built and perfectly equipped Republican Rehabilitation Centre (RRC) for Disabled Children, which was opened in 2012. Its representative stated that it is capable of treating 220 patients. 170 children and their parents live in the centre for 3-4 weeks according to the necessary procedures, 50 patients visit the Centre daily and about 170 are treated at home. Rehabilitation can be repeated every two months. Aside from medical procedures, children receive psychological and social rehabilitation and are encouraged to attend classes located at the Centre (Yusupova, 2014).

All of rehabilitation centres’ reports claim that school is organised according to children’s abilities and health conditions. Children staying at the Argun Rehabilitation Centre could attend neighbouring mainstream school #10 if the specialised medical-pedagogical-psychological board allows them such a level of education (AMSRC, 2015).

Finally, the Orhanage #2 run by the Ministry of Health received a new building in 2010 for 120 children. The orphanage accommodates 100 infants and children with Down syndrome, cerebral palsy, epilepsy and other impairments. It is well equipped, like all rehabilitation centres and boarding schools, and staffed with specialists educated and certified to work with such children. Upon reaching 10 years of age, children were transferred to Rehabilitation centre in Shali (Press office of the government, 2010, Abdulaeva, 2014).

**2.7. Boarding schools and education of disabled children**

As the representative of the MoE recounted, in the early post-conflict reconstruction phase, some disabled children from Chechnya were accepted by the special boarding schools of neighbouring republics, e.g. about 20 deaf children studied at the Boarding school for the Deaf in the Republic of Adygea, with many graduating from that school.

According to a representative of the MoE and directors of the Republic’s boarding schools for deaf, blind and mentally retarded children, they worked as day schools in unsuitable premises or rented private homes similar to Chechnya’s mainstream schools. Parents brought children to school from remote villages or IDP camps and waited for them outside of congested premises for several hours. The other serious problem was the shortage of specialists.

Nevertheless bad roads, insecurity and the lack of public transportation were obstacles to attending special schools located in Grozny. A representative of the MoE claimed that in accordance with the wishes of parents or caregivers, some children were registered at mainstream schools and received education at home. In a few cases, children with light visual impairments visited mainstream classes sitting in the first row, and teachers wrote on the blackboard with large letters (Ashadova, 2015).

Children with mental problems whose parents were ashamed to send them to mainstream schools had a chance for education when the local NGO Sozidanie (Creation), with the financial support of Caritas International and later the European Commission, implemented a project to educate adolescents in mountain villages. According to the NGO’s leader, 240 children aged 10-23 years from five remote districts attended 12 classes, each of 20 students, with a teacher and teacher’s assistant. About half of these children were mentally retarded while others had missed several years of schooling because of warfare. The project stopped when funding dried up although Caritas continued assisting disabled children for several more years, establishing home schools for the disabled, programmes for blind children, and financing psychologists (Usupova, 2015, Fedorova, 2004).

There were also attempts to involve the local community in addressing the educational needs of Chechen children. UNICEF and WFP organised a workshop on ‘Community support to education’ with the participation of World Vision, the People in Need Foundation, Caritas, IMC, Islamic Relief, other NGOs and the Chechen Ministry of Education. UNICEF reported that ‘participants agreed on the importance of a thorough community involvement and ownership… a working group has been established to develop methodology for a greater community involvement’ (UNICEF, 2003f). Nothing else on this matter was found in other reports or sources. However, the chief of the Department of Welfare of the MoL stated, that its branches exist in 20 districts of Chechnya, providing disabled people with pensions, special devices to compensate for their impairments, access to medical treatment and assisting with employment. The chief of VOI confirmed it also has branches in districts assisting the MoL in its activities. However, none of these institutions was reported as promoting education to disabled children in local schools.

**2.8. Inclusive Education**

The concept of an inclusive approach to education was introduced in Chechnya in late 2006 by Moscow’s DPO Perspektiva. With the support of UNICEF, Perspektiva conducted the project, ‘Development of inclusive schools’, in Chechnya and Ingushetia. In its framework, Moscow’s DPO carried out a series of seminars for administrators, school directors, teachers and NGO-workers, presenting the concept and practice of inclusive education and developing a strategy for its implementation in local schools, with the particular involvement of teachers, parents, NGOs and society. The local NGO ‘Lets Save the Generation’ (LSG) became Perspektiva’s implementing partner with financial assistance from Germany (UNICEF, 2006c, 2006d, Perspektiva, 2006).

Perspektiva’s Reports reveal that in 2007, together with LSG, it organized a seminar for the local media in Grozny. Journalists learnt how to present disability issues, including stereotypes, prejudices and terminology for articles on disabled people (Perspektiva, 2007).

Simultaneously, another project was implemented in the region. It was aimed at the creation of teams of young disabled leaders to promote tolerance and raise awareness of disability issues. LSG organized the participation of disabled youth and adolescents from Chechnya in this project and specially trained young leaders visited mainstream schools conducting lessons of awareness for non-disabled Chechen children. More than 2,000 children and teachers took part in those lessons that became very popular in post-conflict Chechnya and persisted until March 2011. The local media published more than 100 articles and made five documentaries dedicated to disability issues. The Moscow International Film Festival of Disabled People, ‘Breaking Down Barriers’, sent several films to Chechnya for public previews (Perspektiva, 2009, 2011).

In 2007, UNICEF and the local NGO Denal identified seven schools in different districts of the Republic to participate in a pilot project on Inclusive Education (IE). Schools were selected on the basis of the high number of disabled children living in those areas. Perspektiva conducted training for trainers on IE to disseminate knowledge among teachers, parents and administrators to facilitate the process (UNICEF, 2007a).

With the support of UNICEF, in 2008, school #18 in Grozny was equipped with ramps and special chairs for the specialised class for children with cerebral palsy *(Appendix 4)*. In 2011, there were three disabled children in this class, and, as the school director later confirmed, there were two girls with cerebral palsy and one boy with autism. Despite attempts and numerous discussions about the need to promote IE, all stakeholders recognized that this school has remained the only such school in the Republic (Press-office of the government, 2009, Betieva, 2009a, Magadaeva, 2011). The director of this school shared her opinion on this matter:

“After the war many parents of disabled children wanted to enrol them in school, even those I hadn’t known they had such children. Due to difficulties with transportation generally they agreed on education at home. Our classes were overcrowded, it was a problem to pay enough attention to a disabled student, and the curricula wasn’t adapted… If a student had a physical impairment but no intellectual problems he could try to study at mainstream school although for children with sensory or mental problems it was better to attend special schools”.

**2.9. Obstacles on the way to IE**

At the same time in 2007, new premises for the Boarding school for deaf children were re-built designed for 135 students, said its director. Later, this school received an additional building allowing it to cater for 240 students (Press-office of the government, 2014).

According to schools’ directors and MoE representative, the Boarding school for blind children received a new building in 2007 and three additional buildings in 2010, so it could cater for 135 students. The Boarding school for mentally retarded children received a new building in 2009 and in 2011, another one, designed for 135 children. Its branches in two districts of the Republic were closed and the institution was transformed into a Primary Boarding school for children with behavioural problems and poor concentration (Ashabova, 2015, Press-office of the government, 2009b).

The only day school for children with mental impairments (including Down syndrome, some cases of cerebral palsy) became Grozny’s municipal day school of 8th type catering for 120 children including 20 orphans, according to school web-site (Auxiliary school, 2014).

In 2010 the MoE established the Centre of Distance Learning aiming to cover the educational needs of disabled children, especially in remote areas. It was available to all children in need who had no contra-indications to work with a computer. The equipment provided by the centre was free of charge. In 2011, there were 245 students participating in distance learning, in 2013, 557 such students (Islamov, 2011, MoE, 2013).

Meanwhile, in 2009-2012, it was estimated that in the Republic, there were more than 800 children with hearing impairments, 2,500 with visual impairments, about 500 with intellectual disability and about 800 with cerebral palsy. (Press-office of the government, 2009b, 2009c, Kashtarova, 2012).

In 2009-2011, several round table discussions took place in the Republic where representatives of the MoE and NGOs together with parents and journalists expressed disappointment that the promotion of inclusive education remained on hold. Among the reasons listed was a lack of awareness among parents. The NGO Serlo conducted a survey and found that 50% of the parents of disabled children knew nothing about IE and preferred home education (Serlo, 2014).

Many parents expressed concerns regarding difficulties with the transportation of disabled children to schools. According to some participants, the common prejudice that only marginalized parents give birth to children with some type of impairment inhibited parents from bringing children to school via public transport (Perfiljeva, 2015).

However, above all, buildings, roads and transport remained inaccessible to disabled people. As the MoL and VOI reported, the local government programme ‘Accessible environment’ was launched in 2007 after some buildings, schools and infrastructure were renovated or re-built without considering the needs of disabled people. Representatives from the Social Welfare Department of the MoL and VOI said that they tried to control renovation and construction processes although their efforts were often ignored. Some municipal and government buildings were equipped with ramps, but apartment buildings, schools, ambulances and even mosques were not. In several cases, constructors tried to ‘create accessibility’ but neglected to consult with disabled people so the outcome was typically poor *(Appendix 6)*. Schools were reconstructed in an inaccessible fashion since inclusive education was often mistakenly considered to be the education of disabled children at home (VOI, 2011).

The shortage of devoted actors also adversely affected the promotion of IE.

In 2009, the leader and initiator of LSG was killed and the task of implementing IE was transferred to Serlo, which had previously worked with the film festival and journalists’ trainings, as recounted by the representative of Perspektiva. With the assistance of Perspektiva’s lawyers, Serlo prepared and submitted a draft of the Chechen Republic’s law ‘Of Inclusive Education’ although, as chief of Serlo said, this was never accepted or even discussed by the Chechen Parliament. As Perspektiva’s representative recognized,

“We could not push them with the legislation issues since until 2013 the Federal Law ‘About education’ didn’t mention inclusive education at all. Despite the fact that some regions practiced inclusion as an experiment Moscow was the only subject of the Federation that managed to adopt its own legislation on that matter”.

Gradually, the activity of local NGOs dedicated to disabled people’s rights declined. The LSG stopped working after the murder of its leader, Serlo, when, according to its director, it lost financial support. In 2006, Russian authorities restricted the activity of foreign donors in Russia and later adopted a law aimed against human rights organizations supported from abroad. Later many international organizations and agencies, including UNICEF, left Russia or were forced to leave. Among NGOs working with disabled people those that channelled activity towards social support, sport and cultural events were prioritized and received government support (Fröhlich, 2010).

As VOI’s chief commented, the organization with its scarce resources, based on funding from the Moscow office, concentrated its efforts on the social support of disabled adults and children and the promotion of accessible environment.

The football team of amputees ‘Laman Az’ (Voice of the Mountain) survived and flourished with government support. As the leader of VoM said, the team was registered as a sport club and, in 2014, became the World Champion (Laman Az, 2014).

**3. Analysis**

Based on the findings expounded above it is possible to state that the theory ‘build back better’, in its main features, is applicable to the Chechen Republic case study, containing the favourable conditions and main impediments to promotion of an inclusive approach to disabled children.

In accordance with tendencies described by Kett (2007, 2010) and Miles (2013), as a consequence of the military conflict, devastating living conditions and shortage in health care services the number of disabled children in the Chechen Republic significantly increased (1.2)[[2]](#footnote-2). At the same time, disabled children had a low priority, and their needs were generally overlooked by the state: they experienced difficulties obtaining pensions, medicines and rehabilitation services (2.5). Opportunities for education, even in segregated institutes, were also limited: boarding schools lost their premises and could not accommodate students overnight, many specialists and teachers left the Republic or were no longer paid (1.3).

However, in post-conflict Chechnya, favourable conditions emerged for changing the education system and making it more inclusive of disabled children.

The lack of teachers and specialists in the post-conflict period has been compensated for by the high motivation and dedication of those who continue to work. The humanitarian crisis attracted considerable resources from the international community to the region, and with new methods and approaches as well as funding for trainings and workshops in neighbouring republics. Teachers became aware of a child’s cantered approach to education, children’s rights and vulnerable children’s needs (2.2).

In the framework of the Inclusive Education project promoted by UNICEF and the Moscow’s NGO Perspektiva, administrators, school directors and teachers were informed about the inclusive approach in particular, including its advantages and possible problems, and were inspired to practice inclusion in their schools (2.8).

During the initial post-conflict years, many temporary schools were run by INGOs or local NGOs, with significant number located in IDP camps outside of Chechnya under the supervision of UNICEF, thereby providing an opportunity to implement new approaches and methods of schooling (2.2). With the high level of unemployment, (2.6) there were also sufficient idle adults, including parents, who were able to assist teachers working with disabled students.

A large number of children in need of psychological and psychiatric care in a post-conflict environment led to the emergence of the strong chain of psychological and psychiatric rehabilitation centres (2.4). Since almost everybody was in need of psychological assistance, it became commonplace. Previously segregated children with light or mild intellectual impairments were therefore able to participate in rehabilitation activities with other children and gradually become adapted to a mainstream school environment, and it confirms the similar conclusion of the WHO researchers (2013).

Special schools for disabled children as well as mainstream schools were destroyed, some almost completely. The reconstruction and rehabilitation of school buildings were implemented with the assistance and financial support of international agencies and donors (2.2). This provided the chance to initiate changes in design to make buildings more accessible. Later, in the framework of the Inclusive Education project, several schools were selected for the inclusion of such equipment as ramps and special appliances to create an accessible environment, and some changes were made in one of these schools (2.8).

Meanwhile, as Kett (2007, 2010) noted in her studies, war victims and landmines survivors of young age were more visible and therefore attracted more attention from humanitarian agencies and NGOs, international and local, than children whose disabilities were not war-related (2.3).

UNICEF, UNESCO, ECHO, ICRC, Handicap International, World Vision, Caritas, CARE, Danish Council, and many other international organizations focused their efforts on assisting Chechen children suffered as a result of the war (2.2–2.4). The urgent need for the medical, psychological and social support of war victims and restricted movements of expats in the Republic triggered an emergence of local NGOs concentrating their assistance on disabled children. Voice of the Mountain, Let’s Save the Generation, Serlo, and some others became the development partners of international agencies (1.4). They willingly grasped the new values and ideas brought by their partners from abroad and outside Chechnya. The concept of the inclusive education was introduced to local NGOs by UNICEF, Caritas and the Moscow’s DPO Perspektiva. In the first stage, local organizations actively worked in raising awareness about disability issues among teachers, parents, school administrations and officials. Later, LSG and Serlo took over the responsibility for the promotion of IE in the Republic (2.8)

International actors, e.g. UNCEF and Caritas, specifically stressed the importance of the inclusion of children with war-related impairments in mainstream schools and colleges (2.3). The results of these efforts could be evaluated as successful. Children, mostly boys, with physical impairments but unchanged mental abilities, who had previously attended school, have managed to return to school or to receive vocational education alongside their non-disabled peers (2.3, 2.4). Similar results were described in Afghanistan by Bakhshi and Trani et al (2006).

Disabled children with impairments unrelated to war, however, have received less attention. UNICEF’s attempts to encourage them to visit mainstream schools in IDP camps were accomplished with unknown results (2.2). Security reasons, problems with transportation and the destruction of boarding schools forced some children with light and mild disabilities to attend mainstream schools in their communities although only one testimony in this regard was received so it cannot be characterized as a tendency (2.7). There were projects by international and local NGOs promoting inclusive education for disabled children in remote areas (2.7), in a special school for children with intellectual impairments (2.4) and in one mainstream school, which was seen to be an example of successful inclusion (2.8). All projects incorporated a limited number of children and did not expand.

At the same time the Republic’s three types of boarding schools specializing in particular forms of disability remained segregated and were reconstructed on larger premises to be able to accept more disabled children (1.3, 2.7, 2.9). Hence, the approach based on ‘defectology’ and the need to fix the ‘defects’ of disabled children to adapt them to the existing environment remained principally unchanged. Residential institutions for children with severe physical and intellectual impairments were re-built, reconstructed and re-named as rehabilitation centres, retaining their main purpose of creating special conditions for children with special needs (2.6). Hence, it could be said that the ‘medical model’ of disability, which focuses on bodily impairment, continued to prevail with a significant proportion of disabled children remaining isolated or segregated in institutions.

In some cases a wrong interpretation of inclusive education rose when disabled children living with their families were formally enrolled in school but provided with education at home or distance learning (2.8, 2.9). They were not deprived of education but, at the same time, not included in the environment of their peers or in community life.

Therefore despite significant efforts to promote inclusive education, and sporadic successful examples of inclusion, the Republic’s education system remained generally unchanged.

Among the impediments affecting the promotion of inclusive education include physical and attitudinal barriers, the strong system of boarding schools, the lack of commitment of international organizations and the instability of local NGOs, the lack of cooperation with government and the absence of political will.

The situation in the Republic remained tense, with a constant threat of violence and the resurgence of conflict persisting for several years (2.1). It limited movement inside Chechnya and forced international actors to locate their offices in neighbouring republics losing control over the implementation of many programmes (1.4, 2.1). It also delayed the emergence of local institutions responsible for the legislative and financial basis for the rehabilitation of disabled people (2.5).

Apartment buildings, schools, the public transportation system and general infrastructure were generally reconstructed without considering the needs of disabled people therefore physical barriers were not removed. Where this was done, usually without consultation with disabled people, the results were poor. Parents commented that this factor significantly hampered the transportation of their disabled children to school (2.9).

Representatives of the educational system expressed their concern about the overcrowded classes and unsuitable premises of mainstream schools, the lack of specialists even in specialised educational institutes to appropriately teach disabled children (1.3, 2.8). At the same time, they were of the opinion that inclusive education was not for children with sensory and intellectual impairments (2.8). Prejudices regarding congenital disability remained unchanged. Attitudes to disabled children thus depended on the types and causes of disability (2.9). The same tendencies were described by researchers worked in Darfur, Afghanistan and Sierra Leone (Alborz et al, 2011, Trani et al, 2011).

Despite the efforts of the DPO Perspektiva to promote new approaches to disability through local media (2.8), a significant number of parents remained unaware of inclusion, and the opportunities and rights of their children, having comparatively low expectations in that regard (2.9). On the other hand, the tradition of extended families living together guaranteed care for a disabled child or adolescent, making his/her chances to lead an independent life questionable (2.6). Parents therefore often lacked the motivation to support the inclusive education.

It was considered safer to educate disabled children in special institutions or at home especially when distance learning became available. The significant role was played by the existing strong system of boarding schools that remained habitual, having proven its effectiveness as an educational institution working in the complex circumstances of war and instability (1.3, 2.7, 2.9). The newly created rehabilitation centres also played their role offering specialised medical care and education at a relevant level for children with severe impairments (2.6). However, this service was not available at a community level, and as rehabilitation centres were located in only three cities, children became isolated from their family and community for long periods (2.7).

The lack of actors’ commitment and a shortage of funding also undermined the promotion of inclusion in the Chechen Republic. International agencies were overloaded in implementing many other projects and tackling other priorities (2.2), the funding of many UNICEF projects was limited (2.4), relations with local authorities were complicated, due to security reasons field offices were located outside of Chechnya, thereby hampering control (2.1). Finally, as stated in UNICEF’s Report evaluating the efforts of its local office, “field staff although excellent were not sufficiently familiar with UNICEF policies and approaches, including Child Cantered Teaching and Learning” (Broughton, 2003, p.20).

Active and devoted, however, local NGOs experiencing financial instability and lack of government support over-relied on international donors and INGOs (2.9). Many came into existence to assist disabled people as a helpless vulnerable group and did not accommodate a rights-based approach (1.4). Later, some NGOs invited their clients to participate in activities and to promote inclusion (2.8) although the actual degree of participation remained questionable since the leaders were not disabled and when the leader was killed or funding came to an end, the NGOs were forced to halt their activities (2.9). As Kett noted (2010), war became catalyst of emergence of NGO dealing with disability issues although in the Chechen Republic they did not grow into DPOs.

In addition, the promotion of inclusive education was hampered by circumstances, which could be characterized as ‘local context’. The idea of IE was neither rejected nor actively supported by local authorities. They participated in discussions and workshops with international and Moscow organizations, although attempts by a local NGO to introduce new legislation on inclusive education brought no results (2.9). The Chechen Republic, as part of the Russian Federation, had to follow Federal rules, regulations and common practices, which did not incorporate the inclusive education of disabled children. In the situation of a barely suppressed insurgency (2.1), the main goal of local authorities was to retain power and to trample the last pockets of resistance, proving their loyalty to Federal authorities. The mere idea of independent development of any kind or of alternative legislation could be seen as rather unpopular.

In the context of a legal vacuum, the efforts of international and local organizations could be directed to the practical implementation of inclusion. As Miles (2013) supposed, in IDP camps where disabled children who had been previously hidden and not attended school, became visible, and the control of the Chechen authorities was relatively weak, temporary schools run by NGOs could become the pilot examples necessary to convince representatives of the educational system that successful inclusion is possible.

Children without war-related impairments, especially those who had previously not attended schools, need to be included in programmes developed for war victims, and experience of several INGOs implementing such policy in the Republic should be systematized and supported by leading international agency. This point of view is supported by Moscow DPO Perspektiva, which tried to promote rights of all disabled children on equal basis.

With the support of branches in the Department of Social Welfare and the local VOI located in all districts of the Republic, community-based rehabilitation could be focused not only on the provision of pensions and prosthetics, but on the promotion of equal educational options for disabled children living in the community.

An important task is to strengthen and increase the capacity of local NGOs working with disabled children to ensure they will be able to assume ownership of the new approach, and representatives of these NGOs expressed their concerns on this matter. Moscow DPO Perspektiva pointed out that the participation of disabled youth in these organizations should not be superficial, or reliant on non-disabled leader.

Finally, the inclusive education of disabled children needs to be perceived by all actors not as an opportunity for suitable schooling but in accordance with a rights-based discourse.

**VIII. Conclusion**

Based on the findings and analysis of this research thesis, it is reasonable to state that its main theory – ‘build back better’ - is plausible in the case study of the Chechen Republic during its post-conflict period.

With a decade of violent military activities and the devastation of living conditions, the number of disabled children in the region significantly increased, with more visible war-related disability, attracting the attention of international organizations and local civil society groups.

The presence of international actors brought new approaches, particularly in terms of the rehabilitation and education of disabled children.

The destruction of schools and the despondency of the local education system provided the opportunity for positive changes to make them more accessible and friendly to disabled children.

As a consequence of the shared efforts of the international and local community, some positive examples of inclusion occurred, although these were generally focused on the physically disabled victims of war. Other disabled children were left behind – some returned to segregated institutions, while others received education at home. They were not deprived of education but remained disadvantaged by their lack of social inclusion.

The essential role played by the strong system of boarding schools, staffed and equipped according to disabled children’s needs, and survived during wartime. The Republic’s general insecurity and the unsuitable environment of mainstream schools inhibited the inclusion of disabled children. While seriously shaken, physical and attitudinal barriers also persisted.

International actors had neither sufficient funding nor staff committed to promoting the new approach. Local NGOs have over-relied on international support and neglected the importance of the participation of disabled people perceiving them as a vulnerable group in need of assistance. The local government restrained from activity that was not approved by the Federal government and has not utilized its own resources to create community-based rehabilitation.

Finally, as a whole, it could be said that attitude towards disabled children in the Chechen Republic in its post-conflict period have not changed significantly but continue to balance between ‘medical’ and ‘social welfare’ approaches assuming that it served for better protection and adaptation of disabled children. Inclusive education is still not being considered within a human rights framework, and it is the main failure of this approach.

To be fair, at the beginning of the 21st century, the promotion of inclusive education for disabled children in a post-conflict environment was not well developed theoretically, nor widely implemented in practice. This Chechen Republic case study has revealed and explored prerequisites for the promotion of inclusion, the methods necessary to implement a more inclusive approach and some of the common mistakes along the way, described by other researchers.

Based on this research, it can be concluded that development actors working in a post-conflict environment should pay more attention to possibilities for the promotion of an inclusive approach to the education of disabled children in IDP camps and temporary settlements under the supervision of international agencies. Moreover, all programmes developed for children injured and maimed by conflict should also include opportunities for the participation of children with non-war related impairments. Positive practical examples of inclusive education play an essential role for teachers and administrators in the local education system.

Building a community-based rehabilitation system is an important condition for the provision of access to schooling according to the needs of disabled children, especially those living in remote areas, and there is still the chance for this to be achieved in the Chechen Republic. Strengthening the capacity of local NGOs, and especially DPOs, remains one of the important tasks in Chechnya. The participation of disabled people in decision-making processes provides a tangible opportunity to take their interests into serious account. However, to be truly successful, discussions need to move beyond an emphasis on ‘defects’ to an approach that is rights-based.

**REFERENCES**

**1. Abdulaeva, Z.** (2014)the main doctor of the Orphanage #2 (Psycho-neurological Children’s House #2), interview conducted in 2014.

**2. Alborz**, **A., J. Al-Hashemy, K. Al-Obaidi, E. Brooker, S. Miles, H. Penn, and R. Slee**.( 2011). A Study of Mainstream Education Opportunities for Disabled Children and Youth and Early Childhood Development in Iraq. A report to UNICEF. London: Council for Assistance to Refugee Academics.

**3. AMSRC** (2014) Argun Medical Social Rehabilitation Centre web-site, <http://amsrc-argun.ru/o-centre/> accessed 05.02.15

**4. Anderson, B.A., Silver, B.D., Velkoff, V.A.** (1987) ‘Education of the Handicapped in the USSR: Exploration of the Statistical Picture’, **Soviet Studies**, 34, 3.

**5. Ashadova**, R (2015), the head of the correctional schools’ Department, the Ministry of Education of the Chechen Republic, interview conducted in 2015.

**6. Auxiliary school** (2014) school web-site <http://www.gk-shkola.ru/about.html> accessed 05.02.15

**7. Azdaeva, R.** (2014) chief of the Chechen branch of All-Russian Society of disabled people, interview conducted in 2014.

**8. Azimi, P.** (2008). “Focus on Policy: Afghanistan.” Enabling Education 12: 3. Manchester: Enabling Education Network [http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/ eenet\_newsletter/news12/page3.php](http://www.eenet.org.uk/resources/%20eenet_newsletter/news12/page3.php) accessed 29.01.15

**9. Bakhshi, P. and J. F. Trani**. 2006. Towards Inclusion and Equality in Education? National Disability Survey in Afghanistan 2005. From Assumptions to Facts. Lyon, France: Handicap International. Sec.4

**10. Barnes, C., Mercer, G.** (2003) Disability Cambridge: Polity Press.

**11. Bernard, Russel H.** (2012) Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches, SAGE Publications, London.

**12. Betieva**, M. (2009) Novyj uchebnyj god, starye problemy… (The new school year with old problems), **Dosh,** The First Caucasian Independent journal, 3 September, 2009, <http://journalists-in-russia.org/rjournalists/view/329> accessed 03.02.15

**13. Blaikie, N.** (2000). ‘Research Questions and Objectives’ in ‘Designing Social Research: the logic of anticipation. Polity Press, Cambridge.

**14. Borisov, T., Yachmennikova, N. (2002).** Chechnya poshla v shkolu (Chechnya went to school), an interview with deputy minister of education of the Russian Federation, Balyhin, G. **Rossiskaya gazeta**, [http://www.rg.ru/ Anons/arc\_2002/0206/hit.shtm](http://www.rg.ru/%20Anons/arc_2002/0206/hit.shtm) accessed 20.01.15

**15. Broughton, B.** (2003). Study of the UNICEF Northern Caucasus Emergency Program Nov 1999 to Dec 2002, UNICEF.

**16. Charlton, J**. (1998) Nothing About Us Without Us, Berkeley: University of California Press.

**17. CRPD** (2006) UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, Washington : UN.

**18. Deryugin**, A. (1998). Kak eto bylo: ocherki istorii invalidnogo dvizeniya v Rossii i istoria VOI (How it happened: Studies on History of disabled people movement in Russia and VOI creation). VOI, Moscow.

**19. Diallo, A.** (1999), Chechnya Struggles with Aftermath of Conflict, Forced Migration Projects, Open Society Institute, from **Forced Migration Monitor** Jun 1999 No. 29. <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/chechnya-struggles-aftermath-conflict> accessed 25.12.14

**20. Dobrovolskaya, Shabalina**, 1991 ‘Invalidy: diskriminiruemoe men’shinstvo?’, Sotsiologicheskie issledovaniya [Sociological research], 5, p.3-8.

**21. Dosh** (2008) Pokolenie voiny (Generation of war), anonymous, The First Caucasian Independent journal, 4 (22) 2008, [http://www.dosh-journal.ru/ 4%2822%292008/1231172127.htm](http://www.dosh-journal.ru/%204%2822%292008/1231172127.htm) accessed 25.12.14

**22. Estamirov**, I. (2012). Chechenskoye obcshestvo slepih otmetilo svoe 80-letie (The Chechen branch of All-Russian Society of blind celebrated its 80th anniversary), Grozny Inform Information Agency, <http://www.grozny-inform.ru/main.mhtml?Part=17&PubID=37821> accessed 14.10.24.

**23. European Commission** (2004a) Humanitarian aid for the victims of the Chechnya conflict Report from European Commission Humanitarian Aid department. Published on 13 May 2004. <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/russia-humanitarian-aid-victims-chechnya-conflict> accessed 27.01.15

**24. European Commission** (2004b) Humanitarian aid for the victims of the Chechnya conflict Report from European Commission Humanitarian Aid department. Published on 18 Oct 2004 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/russian-federation-humanitarian-aid-victims-chechnya-conflict> accessed 27.01.15

**25. Fedorova**, Z. (2004) Oni Pomogaut Chechne (They help Chechnya) ‘**Stolica Plus**’ newspaper, 10 Jun, 2010, <http://www.kavkaz-uzel.ru/articles/51320/> accessed 30.01.15.

**26. Forced Migration Alert** (1999), Report: Displaced difficulties in Chechnya. Open Society Foundations. Vol III, No. 21 - May 27, 1999 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/report-displaced-difficulties-chechnya> accessed 27.01.15

**27. Fröhlich**, C. (2010) Balansirovanie na grani: rossiiskie NGO po rabote s invalidami mezhdu inostrannymi sponsorami i vnutrennei politikoi [Walking the tightrope: Russian disability NGOs between international donors and domestic politics], Zhurnal issledovanii sotsial’noi politiki [Journal of Social Policy Studies], 8(2).

**28. Gagalov**, I. (2014) chief of the Department of Social Protection of the Ministry of Labor of the Chechen Republic, interview conducted in 2014.

**29. Goyet, de Ville de, C., Phelan, M.** (2002) Review of WHO humanitarian programs in North Caucasus (Russian Federation), 24 October -12 November 2002 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/review-who-humanitarian-programs-north-caucasus-russian-federation> accessed 26.01.15

**30. Grigorenko I. L**. (1998) Russian „Defectology“: Anticipating Perestroika in the field // Journal of Learning Disabilities. Vol. 31. No 2. P. 193–207.

**31. Grozny Inform** (2013), Ministerstvo Truda Chechni sozdaet rabochie mesta invalidam po sluhu (The Chechen Ministry of Labor creates jobs for hearing-impaired people), Grozny Inform Information Agency, <http://www.grozny-inform.ru/main.mhtml?Part=11&PubID=45982> accessed 13.10.14.

**32. Hansen, G., Seely, R.** (1996) Chechnya Case Study Report. Watson Institute. <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/chechnya-case-study> accessed 27.01.15

**33. ICRC**, (2007) World Disasters Report, Focus on discrimination. International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Geneva.

**34. INEE** (2009) INEE Guidance Notes on Teacher Compensation in Fragile States, Situations of Displacement and Post-Crisis Recovery, [http://toolkit.ineesite.org/ resources/ineecms/uploads/ 1150/ R5\_INEE\_2009.pdf](http://toolkit.ineesite.org/%20resources/ineecms/uploads/%201150/%20R5_INEE_2009.pdf) accessed 28.11.14.

**35. Islamov**, A. (2011) Distance Learning, **Stolica**, Internet media, 27 Sep. 2011. [http://www.stolicaplus.ru/obrazovanie/1924-distantsionnoe-obrazovanie.html accessed 30.01.15](http://www.stolicaplus.ru/obrazovanie/1924-distantsionnoe-obrazovanie.html%20accessed%2030.01.15).

**36.Kashtarova**, Z. (2012) V zdorovom obshhestve ljudi ne deljatsja na invalidov i neinvalidov (In a healthy society, people do not fall into the disabled and non-disabled). 241-242 (1925) 18.12.12. <http://vesti95.ru/news/medicine/5478547845.html> accessed 29.01.15.

**37. Kett, M**. (2007) ‘Conflict Recovery’. In Barron, T. & Amerena, P. (Eds). **Disability and Inclusive Developmen**t, 155-186. London: Leonard Cheshire International.

**38. Kett, M., van Ommeren, M**. (2009). Disability, conflict and emergencies. **The Lancet** 374(9704):1801-1803

**39. Kett, M.** (2010) ‘Disability and poverty in post-conflict countries’. In Barron, T. & Ncube, J. (Eds). **Poverty and Disability**, 341-371 . London: Leonard Cheshire Disability.

**40. Kosikov**, I., **Kosikova**, L. (1999) Severny Kavkaz: socialno-economichesky spravochnik. (The North Caucasus: Socioeconomic handbook.). Micron-Print. Moscow.

**41. Laman Az** (2014), The Sport Club ‘Laman Az’ (Voice of the Mountain) web-site, <http://lamanaz.com/> accessed 30.01.15.

**42. Landmine monitor**, (2003) Landmine and cluster munition monitor, Chechnya.[http://www.the-monitor.org/index.php/publications/display?url=lm/ 2004/chechnya.html#Heading23398](http://www.the-monitor.org/index.php/publications/display?url=lm/%202004/chechnya.html#Heading23398) accessed 10.10.14.

**43. Lee, S. C.** (1999). “Overcoming Barriers to Inclusion in Afghanistan.” In **Inclusion and Deafness**. A Report of a Seminar, University of Manchester, June 14th 1999 Manchester: Enabling Education Network. [http://www.eenet.org.uk/ resources/docs/repindex.php#](http://www.eenet.org.uk/%20resources/docs/repindex.php) accessed 29.01.15.

**44. Lipina**, S. (2007) Chechenskaya Respublica: Ekonomichesky Potencial I Strategicheskoye razvitie (The Chechen Republic: an economic capacity and a strategic development. Monograph, LKI Publisher, ISBN 978-5-382-00252-1.

**45. Magadaeva, S.** (2011) «Kruglyj stol» ob inkljuzivnom obrazovanii i ego preimushhestve (‘Round Table’ About the Inclusive Education and Its Comparative Advantages), **Grozny-Inform Agency**, 11.11.2011, [http://grozny-inform.ru/ main.mhtml?Part=26&PubID=29986](http://grozny-inform.ru/%20main.mhtml?Part=26&PubID=29986) accessed 30.01.15.

**46. Miles, S**. (2013) Education in times of conflict and the invisibility of disability: a focus on Iraq?, **Disability & Society**, 28:6, 798-811

**47. MoE** (2013) The Ministry of Education of the Chechen Republic, Annual Report, 2013, <http://chtt.proffi95.ru/ministerstvo-obrazovanija-i-nauki-chechenskoi-respubliki-podvelo-itogi-raboty.html> accessed 30.01.15.

**48. Oh, S.-A., and M. van der Stouwe** (2008). “Education and Inclusion in Refugee Camps in Thailand.” **Comparative Education Review** 52 (4): 589–617.

**49. Oliver, M**. (1983), Social Work with Disabled People, Basingstoke: MacMillan.

**50. Otunnu**, O. (2002) “Press Briefing by Special Representative for Children and Armed Conflict,” 1 July 2002.

**51. Overton, J., Diermen, P**. (2014) Quantitative research, Ch. 3 in Development Fieldwork: A Practical guide, Edited by Scheyvens, R., Sage, London.

**52. Paizullaeva**, M. (2014) teacher of the Special boarding school for hearing-impaired children, interview conducted in 2014.

**53. PINF** (2002) People in Need Foundation. Humanitarian operations in Chechnya and Ingushetia Dec 2002 Report <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/pinf-humanitarian-operations-chechnya-and-ingushetia-dec-2002> accessed 27.01.15

**54. PINF** (2003a) People in Need Foundation. Humanitarian Operations in Chechnya and Ingushetia - Oct 2003 Report. <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/humanitarian-operations-chechnya-and-ingushetia-oct-2003> accessed 27.01.15

**55. PINF** (2003b) People in Need Foundation. Humanitarian operations in Chechnya and Ingushetia - September 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/pinf-humanitarian-operations-chechnya-and-ingushetia-september-2003> accessed 27.01.15

**56. Pinnock, H., Hodgkin, M**. (2010). “Education access for all”, in **Forced Migration Review**, Issue 35 p 34-35. (authors from the Inclusive Education Task Team).

**57. Perspektiva** (2006) The NGO Perspektiva’s Digest, autumn 2006. <http://perspektiva-inva.ru/digest/vw-1099/> accessed 04.02.15.

**58. Perspektiva** (2007) The NGO Perspektiva’s Digest, March-June 2007 <http://perspektiva-inva.ru/digest/vw-1100/> accessed 04.02.15.

**59. Perspektiva** (2009) The Project Disabled Youth of North Caucasus For Development of Dialog and Social Networks, 15 May 2008 – 31 March 2009. <http://molproekt.perspektiva-inva.ru/archive/1project_dialog_seti/> accessed 04.02.15.

**60. Perspektiva** (2011) The Project Disabled Youth of North Caucasus For Development of Dialog and Social Networks 1 April 2009- 31 March 2010 <http://molproekt.perspektiva-inva.ru/articles/digest_final/> accessed 04.02.15

**61. Press-office of the government** (2009a) O razvitii inkljuzivnogo obrazovanija v Chechenskoj Respublike (About Development of the Inclusive Education in the Chechen Republic), 2 March 2009, <http://chechnya.gov.ru/page.php?r=126&id=4948> accessed 11.01.15

**62. Press-office of the government** (2009b) Bolee 130 vospitannikov specializirovannogo uchebnogo zavedenija ChR dlja detej s zaderzhkoj psihicheskogo razvitija budut obuchat'sja v novom zdanii (More Than 130 Students of the Boarding School for Mentally Retarded Children will Study in the New Building), 10 Apr. 2009. <http://www.chechnya.gov.ru/page.php?r=126&id=5123> accessed 11.01.15.

**63. Press-office of the government** (2009c) Kitajskie specialisty budut lechit' chechenskih detej, stradajushhih DCP (Chinese experts will treat Chechen children suffering from cerebral palsy) 17.04.2009 [http://www.chechnya.gov.ru/ page.php?r=126&id=5175](http://www.chechnya.gov.ru/%20page.php?r=126&id=5175) accessed 29.01.15.

**64. Press-office of the government** (2010)V Groznom sostojalos' otkrytie Psihonevrologicheskogo doma rebenka (The Psychoneurological Orphanage is Opened in Grozny), 22 April, 2010, [http://www.chechnya.gov.ru/ page.php?r=126&id=7252](http://www.chechnya.gov.ru/%20page.php?r=126&id=7252) accessed 11.01.15.

**65. Press-office of the government** (2014) V Groznom otkryt novyj korpus internata dlja slaboslyshashhih detej (The New Building for the Boarding School for Deaf Children is Opened in Grozny), 29 Dec. 2014, <http://chechnya.gov.ru/page.php?r=126&id=16075> accessed 11.01.15.

**66. Rasell, M. and Iarskaia-Smirnova, E**. (2014) Conceptualising Disability in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union, in Rasell M. & Iarskaia-Smirnova E. (eds) (2013) **Disability in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union: History, Policy and Everyday Life** (NY, Abingdon, Routledge).

**67. RCF** (2006). Russian Children’s Foundation. Programme “Front-line Children of Chechnya”. <http://www.detfond.org/ru/about/dokumenty-fonda/informaciya-o-pomoshi-rdf-detyam-invalidam-chechenskoj-respublik/> accessed 20.10.14.

**68. Rockhold, P. and McDonald**, L. (2009) ‘The hidden issue in international development aid: health and disability in conflict-affected settings’. In **Journal for Disability and International Development** 1: 4-11. Available at [www.zbdw.de/projekt01/media/rtf/2009\_1\_zbdw.rtf accessed 12.12.2013](http://www.zbdw.de/projekt01/media/rtf/2009_1_zbdw.rtf  accessed 12.12.2013).

**69. Roberts, H.** (2002) Helping Hands in a Shattered Republic: Victim Assistance in Chechnya, MAIC, **The Journal of ERW and Mine Action**, December 2002 http://www.jmu.edu /cisr/journal/ 6.3/focus/ roberts/roberts.htm accessed 25.01.15.

**70. Roudik, P.** (2007) ‘Children’s Rights: Russian Federation’, available at: <http://www.loc.gov/law/help/child-rights/russia.php> accessed 12.10.2014.

**71. Russian Information Agency** (2010) Istoriya epidemiy poliomielita v SSSR i Rossii. Spravka (The History of Polio Epidemics in the USSR and Russia. Information). Russian Information Agency [http://ria.ru/spravka/20100513/ 233877191.html#ixzz3H6a0F1pf](http://ria.ru/spravka/20100513/%20233877191.html#ixzz3H6a0F1pf) accessed 14.10.2014.

**72. Save the Children** (2008). Delivering Education for Children in Emergencies: A Key Building Block for the Future. London: Save the Children. <http://www.ecdgroup.com/docs/lib_005985256.pdf> accessed 11.01.15.

**73. Serlo** (2014). Web-site of the NGO Serlo <http://www.center-serlo.org/index_eng.html> accessed 11.01.15

**74. Shmidt, V**., (2014) Lost in Transition. In Rasell M. & Iarskaia-Smirnova E. (eds) (2013) **Disability in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union: History, Policy and Everyday Life** (NY, Abingdon, Routledge).

**75. SRC** (2014) Shali Rehabilitation Centre for children with special needs, web-site <http://shrcdov.ru/?page_id=35> accessed 05.02.15

**76. SSRC** (2015) Shali Social Rehabilitation Centre for children, web-site, <http://www.rc-shali.ru/science/list_of_conferences/> accessed 05.02.15

**77. Thomson,** K.(2002) 'Differentiating integration: special education in the Russian Federation'**, European Journal of Special Needs Education,** 17: 1, 33 — 47

**78. Tohaeva**, T. (2014) the headmaster of the Special correction boarding school for mentally backward children, interview conducted in 2014.

**79. Trani, J.-F., M. Kett, P. Bakhshi, and N. Bailey**. (2011). “Disability, Vulnerability and Citizenship: To What Extent is Education a Protective Mechanism for Children with Disabilities in Countries Affected by Conflict?” **International Journal of Inclusive Education** 15 (10): 1187–1203

**80. Trani, J.-F., P. Bakhshi, and A. Nandipati**. (2012). “‘Delivering’ Education; Maintaining Inequality. The Case of Children with Disabilities in Afghanistan.” **Cambridge Journal of Education** 42 (3): 345–365.

**81. Tsybulskaja I.S., Khatsieva М.S.** (2009) Iindicators of health and reproduction of the population among migrants from the Chechen republic (1999-2004) in comparison with similar indicators during years 1985-1998. Federal Public Health Institute, Moscow [http://vestnik.mednet.ru/content/ view/104/30/lang,ru/](http://vestnik.mednet.ru/content/%20view/104/30/lang,ru/) accessed 20.11.15

**82. UN** (1996) The situation of human rights in the Republic of Chechnya of the Russian Federation, Report of the Secretary-General. Economic and Social Council, COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS, Fifty-second session. E/CN.4/1996/13 26 March 1996.

**83. UN** (2000) Chechnya: Press Briefing by UN Emergency Relief Coordinator a.i. Report from UN Department of Public Information, Published on 27 Nov 2000 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/chechnya-press-briefing-un-emergency-relief-coordinator-ai> accessed 28.01.15

**84. UNESCO** (1994) The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education. Adopted by the World Conference on Special Needs Education, Access and Quality, in Salamanca, Spain, 7-10 June, 1994. Paris : UNESCO.

**85. UNESCO** (2006) Education for All. Global Monitoring Report 2007 - Strong foundations

Multimedia report. Theme: Early childhood care and education. Published in 2006 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris.

**86. UNICEF** (1996) United Nations report by Graça Machel, the UN Secretary-General's Expert on the Impact of Armed Conflict on Children. <http://www.unicef.org/graca/patterns.htm>, accessed 09/12/2014

**87. UNICEF** (2000) Emergency Programmes: Northern Caucasus Donor Update 28 Sep 2000

<http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-emergency-programmes-northern-caucasus-donor-update-28-sep-2000> accessed 28.01.15.

**88. UNICEF (**2001a) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus Donor Update 27 Apr2001<http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-27-apr-2001> accessed 28.01.15.

**89. UNICEF** (2001b) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus Donor Update 25 Jul 2001<http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-25-jul-2001> accessed 28.01.15.

**90. UNICEF** (2002a) Emergency Programmes: Northern Caucasus Donor Update Oct 2002 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/northern-caucasus-unicef-humanitarian-appeal-children-and-women-jan-dec> accessed 28.01.15.

**91. UNICEF** (2002b) Humanitarian appeal for children and women Jan - Dec 2002 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/northern-caucasus-unicef-humanitarian-appeal-children-and-women-jan-dec> accessed 28.01.15.

**92. UNICEF** (2002c) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus. Sitation Report No. 53 <http://css.static.reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-sitation-report-no-53> accessed 28.01.15.

**93. UNICEF** (2002d) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 57 Dec 2002 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-57> accessed 28.01.15.

**94. UNICEF** (2003a) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus Donor Update 20 Jan 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-20-jan-2003> accessed 28.01.15.

**95. UNICEF** (2003b) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 61 Feb 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-61> accessed 28.01.15.

**96. UNICEF** (2003c) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 64 March 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-64> accessed 28.01.15.

**97. UNICEF** (2003d) Emergency Programmes: Northern Caucasus Donor Update May 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-02-may-2003> accessed 28.01.15.

**98. UNICEF** (2003e) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 73 Aug 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-73> accessed 28.01.15.

**99. UNICEF** (2003f) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 78 Nov 2003 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-78>accessed 28.01.15.

**100. UNICEF** (2004a) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus donor update 25 May 2004 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-25-may-2004> accessed 28.01.15.

**101. UNICEF** (2004b). Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 86 May 2004 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-86> accessed 28.01.15.

**102. UNICEF** (2004c) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 88 <http://css.static.reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-88> accessed 28.01.15.

**103. UNICEF** (2004d) Humanitarian Assistance in the Northern Caucasus Situation Report No. 91 Oct 2004 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-situation-report-no-91> accessed 28.01.15.

**104. UNICEF** (2004e) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus donor update 25 November 2004 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-25-november-2004> accessed 28.01.15.

**105. UNICEF** (2005a). Children and Disability in Transition in CEE/CIS and Baltic States’, UNICEF, Florence.

**106. UNICEF** (2005b) Humanitarian Action: Northern Caucasus donor update 18 Feb 2005 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-northern-caucasus-donor-update-18-feb-2005> accessed 28.01.15.

**107. UNICEF** (2005c) Programme in the North Caucasus Activity Report Aug 2005 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-assistance-northern-caucasus-activity-report-no-100> accessed 28.01.15.

**108. UNICEF** (2006a) Humanitarian Action: North Caucasus donor update 13 Mar 2006 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-humanitarian-action-north-caucasus-donor-update-13-mar-2006> accessed 28.01.15.

**109. UNICEF (**2006b) Programme in the North Caucasus Activity Report 2006 June. <http://css.static.reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-programme-north-caucasus-activity-report-no-109> accessed 28.01.15.

**110. UNICEF** (2006c) Programme in the North Caucasus Activity Report No. 111 2006 Aug. <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-programme-north-caucasus-activity-report-no-111> accessed 28.01.15.

**111. UNICEF** (2006d) Programme in the North Caucasus Activity Report No. 113 Dec 2006 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-programme-north-caucasus-activity-report-no-113> accessed 28.01.15.

**112. UNICEF (**2007a) Programme in the N. Caucasus: Activity report no. 114; 1 Jan - 31 Mar 2007 <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/unicef-programme-n-caucasus-activity-report-no-114-1-jan-31-mar-2007> accessed 28.01.15.

**113. UNICEF** (2007b) 13 Apr report Billboards depict a child's perspective of life in Chechnya, Russian Federation <http://reliefweb.int/report/russian-federation/billboards-depict-childs-perspective-life-chechnya-russian-federation> accessed 28.01.15.

**114. UNICEF** (2012). The Right of Children with Disabilities to Education: A Rights-based Approach to Inclusive Education. Position paper. UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States, Geneva: UNICEF.

**115. Usupova, L**. (2015) the leader of the NGO ‘Sozidanie’ (Creation), interview.

**116. Vaus, de, D.,** (2001) Research Design In Social Research, Sage, London.

**117. VOI** (2006). Report of the Chechen branch of All-Russian society for Disabled People for the period 2001-2006, e-mailed in July 2014.

**118. VOI** (2011). Report of the Chechen branch of All-Russian society for Disabled People for the period 2006-2011, e-mailed in July 2014.

**119. Voice of the Mountains**, NGO (2014). Report of mines casualties. E-mailed on 17.07.14.

**120. WHO** (2003) Health in the North Caucasus. Newsletter on Emergency Preparedness and Response, July-August 2003. WHO. <http://www.euro.who.int/emergencies> accessed 25.01.15.

**121. WHO and World Bank** (2011), ‘Education’, in WHO and World Bank (2011), World Report on Disability, Geneva: WHO.

**122. WHO** (2013), World Health Organization, Building back better: sustainable mental health care after emergencies. <http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85377/1/9789241564571_eng.pdf> accessed 20.12.2014

**123. World Vision** (2007). Education’s missing millions: Including disabled children in education through EFA FTI processes and national sector plans. [http://9bb63f6dda0f744fa444-9471a7fca5768cc513a2e3c4a260910b.r43.cf3.rackcdn.com/files/7313/8029/8842/Educations-Missing-Millions-Summary-Report.pdf accessed 23.01.15](http://9bb63f6dda0f744fa444-9471a7fca5768cc513a2e3c4a260910b.r43.cf3.rackcdn.com/files/7313/8029/8842/Educations-Missing-Millions-Summary-Report.pdf%20accessed%2023.01.15).

**124. WRC** (2008) Women’s Refugee Commission. Disability among refugees and conflict-affected populations New York: Women’s Refugee Commission. Available at <http://www.google.co.uk/?gws_rd=cr#bav=on.2,or.r_qf.&fp=164f700b72220e0d&q=Disability+among+refugees+and+conflict-affected+populations> accessed 01.12.2013

**125. Yin, R.K.** (1994). Case Study Research, Design and Methods. London: Sage.

**126. Yusupova**, S. (2014) specialist of social development of the Republican Rehabilitation Centre for Disabled children, interview conducted in 2014.

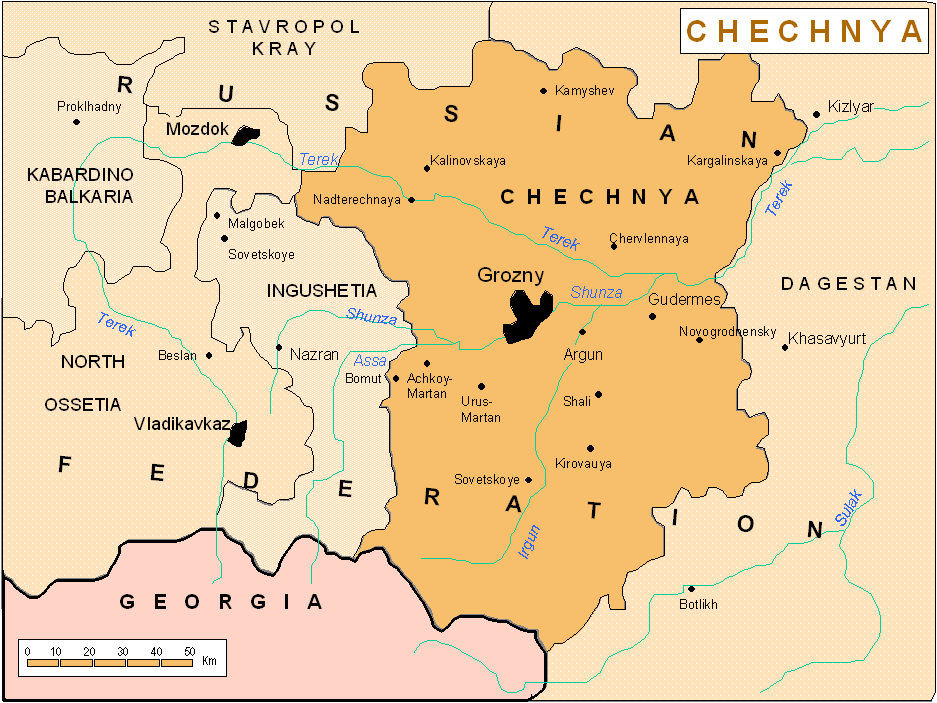
**127. Zaitov**, A. (2014) teacher of the Special boarding school for blind children, interview conducted in 2014.

**128. Zampaglione, G. and Ovadiya, M.** (2009) Escaping Stigma and Neglect: People with Disabilities in Sierra Leone, Africa Human Development 2. Washington, DC: World Bank.

**APPENDIXES**

Appendix 1.

**Map of the Chechen Republic showing neighbouring republics and cities where rehabilitation institutions are located (OSCE, 2000, available at ReliefWeb).**

****

Appendix 2.

**Disabled children in special schools, kindergartens and orphanages in Russia, 1996. (Galaguzova, Mardahaev, 2004, Metodika i tehnologija raboty social'nogo pedagoga [Methodic and technic of social teacher’s work] M.: Akademija)**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Administered by** | **Profile of school** | **Num.**  **of schools** | **Number of children** |
| Ministry of Labor  and Social  Development | Boarding schools for mentally retarded and uneducable | 159 | 35,300 |
| Boarding schools for children with physical impairments | 6 | 900 |
| Ministry of Health | Orphanage for disabled | 252 | 18,300 |
| Ministry of  Education | Boarding schools for children with physical and mental impairments | 1437 | 199,500 |
| ‘Auxiliary schools’ for mentally backward children | 1871 | 271,000 |
| Orphanage |  | 28,000 |

Appendix 3.

**Questionnaire for the heads or representatives of boarding schools, rehabilitation centres, the orphanage**

1. How long do you work in the school/centre/orphanage?

2. What is your position now? What was your position in 1990?

3. How long does this school exist? When was it opened?

4. Which ministry is in charge? Who financed the institution?

5. For how many students it was designed? How many of them usually attended the school?

6. Were they orphans? Were they social orphans?

7. Did the students stay at the institution year around or had any vacations?

8. Were they all from Chechnya? From which of the neighbouring republics?

9. Was this school/centre/orphanage the only one in Chechnya?

10. What kind of curricula was utilized? Was it adapted curricula of the mainstream school?

11. What kind of special equipment the school had? Did it have a library or workshop?

12. How many grades the school had? At what age children were transferred/graduated?

13. Whether joint activities with mainstream schools took place?

14. What had happened with the institution in 1991-1994? 1994-1995? 1996-1999? 2000-2012?

a) Was it destroyed? Was it occupied? By whom?

b) Who financed? Who assisted?

c) How many children have left? How many children have returned?

d) Were children evacuated? Where?

15. Was the institution rebuilt of the same capacity?

16. What is your own opinion regarding the inclusive education? What are the benefits of the institution?

Appendix 4.

**School # 18, the pilot project of the inclusion in the Chechen Republic**

****

****

Appendix 5.

**The programme ‘Accessible Environment’ in the city: changes were made without consultation with disabled people. Prospekt Putina St., Grozny**





1. Clinton, W. J. 2006. Lessons Learned from Tsunami Recovery. Key Propositions for Building Back Better. A report by the United Nations Special Envoy for Tsunami Recovery. December, 2006. New York: Office of the UN secretary-general’s special envoy for tsunami recovery. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. It refers to the relevant paragraph of chapters 1 and 2 in Findings and Analysis [↑](#footnote-ref-2)