

Educating Every Learner, Every Day: A Global Responsibility



University of Namibia



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- To encourage international cooperation and collaborative international research.
- To promote continuing education of its members by organizing conferences in different countries around the world.
- To foster international communication in special education through *The Journal of The International Association of Special Education*.

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PREFACE

The International Association of Special Education (IASE) holds an international conference every two years with the intent of bringing special educators, families, and other interested professionals and individuals together to share ideas and experiences, celebrate accomplishments, and of course create and renew friendships. This year the IASE is proudly sponsoring the twelfth biennial conference whose theme is “*Educating Every Learner, Every Day: A Global Responsibility.*” Indeed, educating every learner is a global responsibility and what better opportunity could we have, than this gathering, to learn from each other on what has emerged or could still be emerging as “best and effective practice” for serving children with special needs around the world.

We hope you will find the manuscripts insightful and therefore, helpful in advancing your work with children and youth with disabilities around the world. We have included contact information for the presenters, in case you want to learn more about the presentations.

We thank all the presenters who submitted their abstracts for inclusion in the conference proceedings. We also thank all those who participated in making the conference a success. Finally, we would like to register our appreciation to all those who are committed to making a difference in the lives of the many children who are challenged by disability everywhere on earth.

Morgan Chitiyo
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CHALLENGES FACING DEAF AND HARD OF HEARING STUDENTS IN AN INTEGRATED POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTION IN NIGERIA

Omolara Funmilola Akinpelu
Olabisi Bolanle Olawuyi

Introduction

It is clearly stated in the National Policy of Education (NPE, 1981 2003 & 2004) that education is a right and not a privilege to every citizen, this objective among others prompted Nigerian government to be interested in the education of children and adults with disabilities. To this effect, many schools have been established to cater for the educational needs of individuals with special needs from pre-primary to tertiary levels. In terms of placement for these individuals, it is stated in the National Policy of Education that integration is the most realistic form of special education. This is in line with one of the features of the American Public Law 94-142, as stated by Kirk and Gallagher (1989), that person with disabilities should be educated in the most restrictive environment. That is, as much as possible, children with disabilities must be educated alongside their peers without disabilities. This philosophy is to move, as close to the regular classroom setting, this is necessary because students with disabilities are eventually expected to live in the larger society.

In most developed countries and some developing ones, the trend in terms of placement in special education is inclusion. Garuba (2003) noted that the readiness for acceptance of inclusion varies across countries and continents of the world. She further opined that while countries within the advanced economies have gone beyond categorical provisions to full inclusion, Nigeria and most countries of Africa are still grappling with the problem of making provisions for children with special needs on the basis of integration. This present paper therefore investigated the challenges facing deaf and hard of hearing students in an integrated post-secondary institution in Nigeria. The impetus behind this paper was that the researcher wanted to find out how deaf and hard of hearing students are coping in an integrated setting. This is pertinent because it will give an insight into how the objectives of integration have been realized and will provide information on which basis can inclusion be based. The merits of inclusion are numerous, Stainback and Stainback (1996) stated that inclusive schooling is the social value of equality and that in contrast to the experiences of segregation, inclusion reinforces the practice of the idea that differences are accepted and respected. As mentioned by Garuba (2003), Nigeria is yet to fully implement her policies of integration and has not really come to terms with the philosophy of inclusion. It not enough making policies but the strength of a good policy lies in its implementation.

In Nigeria, Federal College of Education (Special) was established in 1997 to train special teachers and to act as catalyst through research in introducing new methods of teaching in special education. This institution according to UNDP/UNESCO 1996 report (NIR/87/1008) has the best-qualified staff not only in Nigeria but also in West, North, East and Central Africa. This institution has the highest number of students with disabilities (especially deaf and hard of hearing students) in post-secondary institution in Nigeria.

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Discussion and Implications of Findings

The findings of the study among others revealed that respondents were faced with challenges in these areas in the following order: social; peer; school; financial and parental related problems. The major challenge facing deaf and hard of hearing students is socially inclined. Some of these challenges include communication barrier, which hinders social interaction between them and their hearing peers. This limitation encourages deaf and hard of hearing students to confine themselves to the deaf community and this is actually making these students feel isolated, neglected and rejected in an institution which supposes to be an integrated setting. The implication of this is that the objective of integration as stated in the National Policy of Education (1998, 2004) is yet to be realized. It is stated in this government document “integration is the most realistic form of special education because persons with disability are expected to eventually live in the larger society” (p. 36). Another challenge facing deaf and hard of hearing students comes from their hearing peers. This has many implications on their survival on campus because most of the information they need might be held back and can eventually affect their academic work. The school authority too is not playing its roles as expected, for instance, there are no enough interpreters. The implication of this is obvious because deaf and hard of hearing students are not gaining much in terms of their academics.

This study has implications for the field of special education, for instance, it gives an insight to the current practice of special education in a developing country such as Nigeria. It also buttresses the fact that indeed work is in progress in special education only in developed nations but also in developing nations. The fact that Nigeria can boast of her deaf and hard of hearing students in post-secondary institutions shows that Nigeria has come to the realization that there are abilities in disabilities. This was not the situation years ago; Abang (1995) stated that persons with disabilities have a history of neglect and marginalization within their families and communities.

Recommendations

It is very important that policy makers in Nigeria make sure that deaf and hard of hearing students are not neglected in so called integrated setting. There is the need for school administration to put machinery in place to bridge the communication gap between the hearing impaired and their hearing peers. This will assist the former to have sense of belonging and will promote quality social interaction which will eventually have positive effect in their lives generally.

In order to foster effective integration, the school administration should encourage students to form interpreters’ club; this will afford the hearing students to develop sustained interest in sign language. Deaf and hard of hearing students should be encouraged to fully participate in social and political activities on campus. The government should employ more qualified interpreters to meet the ever increasing needs of deaf and hard of hearing students in an integrated setting.

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DESIGNING ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY TRAINING FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS

Dianne J. Chambers

With an increase in the number of students with disabilities being included in regular education settings internationally, there has also been a subsequent increase in the number of paraprofessionals supporting these students (Ghere & York-Barr, 2007; Giangreco, Smith & Pinckney, 2006). In many school situations, the paraprofessional holds responsibility for assisting students with special needs to access the curriculum of the classroom, as well as to manage the social and emotional environment (Carter, O'Rourke, Sisco & Pelsue, 2009).

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Assistive technology use is one area in which the paraprofessionals may be expected to assist students, and indeed, on occasion, the family and classroom teacher. The role of the paraprofessional in supporting students with special needs through the use of assistive technology is multi-faceted and it is therefore timely to consider the type and structure of training that these staffs receive.

There is generally little, if any, targeted assistive technology training for paraprofessionals in their entry-level training in Western Australia, and they are often expected to "learn on the job." The development of a relevant and targeted program for training paraprofessionals in the area of assistive technology will assist in ensuring that the needs of all parties are able to be met. "Staff who know their roles and have the skills to perform their designated tasks are more likely to contribute effectively to the aims of the organisation" (Ryall & Goddard, 2003, p. 73) as well as developing their own feelings of satisfaction and self-efficacy. A focus on designing effective training for paraprofessionals requires the trainer to consider a number of aspects including: paraprofessionals' prior knowledge and training; education system requirements; content to be included; accessibility to the assistive technology; timing of the training; venue; transfer of learning; and maintenance of the skills (Goldman & Schmalz, 2005).

When developing any training package for a specific group of people, it is important to firstly determine what knowledge and skills are already held by the participants (Scales, 2008). There are many tools that may be used to collect this data, including survey instruments and questionnaires. The information gathered via these instruments will assist the trainer in developing an overall picture of the existing level of skill and knowledge from which they can then scaffold the learning of the participants in the training. The data collected may be very specific (i.e. Are you a competent user of the Boardmaker software package?), or broad in nature (i.e. Have you had any previous training in assistive technology?), depending on the information required. The length of time the paraprofessional has been in their current role, what they feel the role entails, educational level achieved and their recent experiences in the classroom may also be ascertained. It is generally useful to collect a variety of data from which to make decisions about training directions.

When considering the needs of the paraprofessionals, it is also vitally important to take into account the specific education system requirements that may be in effect. For example, the education district may require the paraprofessionals to be proficient in using specified software programs or hardware. There may also be restrictions on the types and quantity of assistive technology devices and services that are available to schools. It is disappointing, discouraging and a poor use of limited available time and resources to be trained to apply a useful piece of assistive technology and then find that you will not be able to access this for the students. Consistency with the local education district will also ensure the trainer is aware of formats for planning and evaluation of the assistive technology in the trainees local region (i.e. SETT proforma, WATI materials), and the focus of the content of the training. Content may include: planning for the use of AT in the classroom; specific assistive technology for communication, physical difficulties, sensory impairments, and learning difficulties; and keeping records.

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The more closely aligned the training is with the existing knowledge and skills of the group, the expectations of the organization, the support available to the trainees and the actual requirements of the paraprofessionals in their roles, the more likely it is that the learning will be transferred from the training situation to the classroom (Goldman & Schmalz, 2005; Thomas, 2007). The trainer can enhance the transfer of learning by incorporating opportunities within the training and post-training to reflect on what has been learnt and where it is situated within the workplace setting. Developing appropriate mentor or coaching systems (Thomas, 2007), post-course reflection (Leberman & Martin, 2004) and using tests (Rohrer, Taylor & Sholar, 2010) have all been described as effective ways to build transfer of learning.

A maintenance probe initiated post-training will assist in determining whether the knowledge and skills learnt in the training have been maintained or lost. The information obtained from the maintenance probe will assist in fine-tuning the training for future cohorts and for providing follow-up training for the group. It will also provide insight into the actual use of the assistive technology within the classroom setting, as the skills that are used often will be maintained more effectively than those which are not.

Along with the pedagogical requirements to be considered, the timing of the training and the venue for the training will be important, and sometimes critical, considerations. In busy school environments there is pressure to ensure that the time allocated to paraprofessional support is utilized as effectively as possible. In some situations it may require ‘logistical gymnastics’ to organize appropriate times when all parties can come together, particularly when dealing with more than one school location. Paraprofessionals may be asked to give up some of their own time (voluntarily) to participate in the training, especially if it increases their own skills and knowledge base. Working with more than one school can be cost effective and promotes a network of staff supporting each other in the district. One consideration, however, is the venue that will be used for the training. This can be negotiated with the paraprofessionals or may be dependent on available resources at the schools.

The development of a strong and utilitarian training program for paraprofessionals will be of benefit to the trainees, the school, and the students with special needs. Time devoted to thorough analysis of the requirements of the individuals and the school system will be time well spent when the skills and knowledge learnt in the training are successfully transferred to the classroom setting and are maintained over time.

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**TRANSITION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES TO POST-SECONDARY
EDUCATION OR WORK ENVIRONMENT**

John Charema

Introduction

This paper addresses a traditionally rare piece in the system puzzle of preparing individuals with learning disabilities to meet the challenges of adulthood. For a long time most professional efforts (Patton & Blalock, 2002), have focused on academic preparation from the time students with learning disabilities were recognized. The rest of the person's adult adjustment (self-determination, life skills and community living, vocational preparation and employment, etc.) has largely been left to the individuals concerned.

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Transition Challenges

Many potential barriers exist for young people with disabilities. The nature and severity of the restriction produces observable performance and handicap difficulties, which may be augmented by assistive devices, appliances, aids or another person. These young people may not acquire certain concepts or skills without assistance, or obtain the same amount of a variety of pre-vocational skills and work experiences; they may lack training in basic skills such as job search, job maintenance, mobility or transportation, and self-advocacy skills. Schools and other career counseling agencies may lack specialized personnel and society may have lower performance expectations for them. Unless both educational and vocational programs incorporate activities that examine the concept of disability, and the accompanying barriers, they will not prepare people with disabilities adequately in order for them to enter college/university or work environment with success.

Planning

The criteria for substantiating a learning disability in postsecondary institutions can be somewhat different from that of high schools. A full understanding of the differences between the responsibilities of high schools and colleges and universities is critical to successful transition (Charema & Johnson, 2010). Transition programs should be properly planned while students with disabilities are still in high school. Before leaving high school and entering the world of work or other post-secondary settings, young people with disabilities must master a number of career developmental tasks in relation to their disabilities. Practitioners and researchers have suggested that many aspects (social, academic and interpersonal skills) are necessary and applicable to young people with disabilities (Hershenson & Szymanski, 1992). During the school-to-work transition, most young people have entered an exploration stage, which fosters the exploration of personal characteristics and career opportunities. As career opportunities and realities are clarified, young people make tentative career selections, test them through fantasy, discussions, and/or work experiences, and consider them as possible life-roles.

Transition programs should take into account participants' interests, capabilities, and values, and then practice communicating these personal characteristics in real life situations. In addition, the program facilitators can examine ways in which some people with disabilities have successfully bridged the gap between school and career. People with disabilities often face barriers that negatively affect their self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. Recognizing the true potential of persons with disabilities and appreciating the possible effects of frequent, negative experiences can help to minimize the impact. The programs should allow the participants to examine barriers to career success and give the participant an opportunity to identify their own barriers and contemplate strategies to overcome them. They also consider ways in which other people with disabilities have confronted career barriers. While in developed countries such preparation plans can be made and implemented successfully, the same cannot be said about developing countries. Most developing countries particularly in Southern Africa can have excellent transition plans on paper but implementation is hampered by lack of resources, corruption, lack of qualified personnel, unemployment, limited university/college places, limited

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job opportunities and negative social attitudes.

Transition Counseling

Transition counseling provides referrals to college/university education, career training and social services. In developing countries, outreach programs into rural areas, semi-urban and urban areas could be arranged to help young people with disabilities visit colleges/universities as well as work environments to familiarize themselves with both college/university and work environments before they make choices, engage and commit themselves. Professionals such as psychologists, counselors, social workers and educational advisors could set up centers in well-known schools and growth points to help students from rural communities. This would alleviate the shortage of transport. With limited industries in developing countries for internship or attachment, secondary schools and counseling program facilitators need to foster relationships with companies and industrial developers. Through counseling programs individuals are helped to have a realistic view of their limitations and capabilities and the options available for them in order to make informed choices. Transition programs should also allow people with disabilities to be exposed to networking with their counterparts in different colleges or work environments in order for them to share experiences.

Assessment and Adjustments

Relevant assessment tools are necessary for effective assessment in order to establish the required adjustments. The main objective is for these young people to gain an understanding of themselves considering their abilities, interests and values. The protection of civil rights of people with disabilities in employment is intended to level the playing field by providing equal access and opportunity for success in the work place. They also need to understand the world of work, and acquire effective decision-making skills. As cited by Joyce and Rossen (2006), many students with learning disabilities tend to have unrealistic career expectations sometimes due to influence from friends, parents and relatives. Sometimes they under-estimate or over-estimate their potential for certain courses or career options. Proper assessment can help encourage, guide, and redirect students with unrealistic expectations toward more realistic career goals.

Vocational Skills and Work Environment

Work is a central part of adult life, and can provide a sense of accomplishment and pride and have an enormous effect on our overall life satisfaction, or it can serve as a source of frustration and dissatisfaction. Studies have reported that people with disabilities have lower work force participation rates than the general public (Joyce & Rossen 2006), Lack of transitional and vocational programs for young people with disabilities, is cited as one of the major causes of their failure to function in different work environments. Young people with disabilities should be given the opportunity to explore the world of work; formulate questions to investigate specific careers; determine if these careers meet their personal needs, abilities and directions. They need to be able to explain their functional limitations that might impact the transition to work, understand their unique way of functioning and learning, and be able to describe accommodations that mitigate the impact of their disabilities. In developing countries

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particularly in Southern Africa, the emphasis has been on sheltered employment which yields very little mainly because people without disabilities have flooded that market as well. Although a college degree is an excellent advantage in finding a rewarding job for a great number of people, postsecondary education particularly in developing countries, is not the optimal or even possible choice for many students with disabilities. Compared to their peers without disabilities, students with disabilities are more likely to experience unemployment or underemployment, lower pay, and job dissatisfaction (Patton & Blalock, 2002). Many students with disabilities as well as those with chronic achievement problems drop out of high school before graduating, leaving them even more unprepared for and less likely to obtain a job.

Conclusion

Transition program, which involves counseling, is an educational and vocational program for young people with disabilities which: facilitates self-understanding; career understanding; decision-making; self-advocacy; develop positive attitudes and skills necessary to participate successfully in colleges/universities and the work environment.

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DEFINING RIGOROUS EVIDENCE: VIEWS FROM THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

Elizabeth M. Dalton

Introduction: Evidence-Based Practice in Education

In education today, the current push to implement strong educational standards clearly connects to the issue evidence-based practice. The contemporary concept of evidence-based practice (EBP) originated in the field of medicine during the 1990s in Great Britain (Sackett, Rosenberg, Gray, Haynes, & Richardson, 1996). Evidence-based practice has been defined as “the conscientious, explicit, and judicious use of current best evidence in making decisions about the care of individuals” (Sackett, et. al, 1996, p. 71), to include “integrating individual clinical expertise with best available clinical evidence from systematic research” (p. 71). Emphasizing the shared importance of research evidence *and* clinical evidence, EBP principles and guidelines developed widely in medically-related professions, including nursing, occupational therapy, physical therapy, speech language pathology, and social work. Leading British and American educators, recognizing its importance, began to incorporate the principles of EBP into the field of education, citing the value of acquiring rigorous, empirical evidence to inform instructional practice (Davies, 1999; Hargreaves, 1997; Slavin, 2002). Davies (1999) describes the connection between EBP and education in stating that “evidence-based education means integrating individual teaching and learning expertise with the best available external evidence from systematic research” (p.117).

Davies (1999) also states his concern about the current state of evidence in education:

...educational activity is often inadequately evaluated by means of carefully designed and executed controlled trials... (or other research methods)...Moreover, the research and evaluation studies that do exist are seldom searched for systematically, retrieved and read, critically appraised for quality, validity and relevance, and organized and graded for power of evidence. (p.109)

Davies further identifies the great need for research in the application of EBP as “the task of evidence-based education” (p.109).

Evidence-based Education

What is evidence-based education? Slavin (2002), creator of the research-based comprehensive school reform *Success for All*, emphasizes “rigorous experiments evaluating replicable programs and practices” (p.15) to build confidence in educational research. However, Slavin also identifies need for greater use of correlational, descriptive, and other empirical methods of inquiry in education to expand the scope of acceptable evidence beyond that of strict random clinical trials (RCT). The idea that EBP is based on use of current *best research evidence*, including the *best available clinical evidence*, as Sackett and colleagues (1996) describe and as Davies (1999) supports. The idea has been overshadowed by a movement in education to define rigorous EBP strictly as “gold-standard evidence”, namely experimental RCT.

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Quality and Rigor of Evidence

It is important to understand the criteria that apply in identification of the nature and rigor of evidence. From the 1998 Agency for Health Care Policy and Research Conference in Washington, D.C., a definition of quality of evidence emerged:

The definition of quality is evidence from studies designed and conducted to protect against systematic and non-systematic bias and errors of inference. Non-methodological quality is the extent to which a study has significant clinical or policy relevance or both. (Lohr, 1998)

The consideration of quality in all aspects of practice, through a wide range of evidence sources, is critical in education, as it is critical in medicine, to ensure the integrity of these fields.

Scientific evidence is empirical evidence; evidence that can be measured, as well as methods that can be replicated. There is strong belief that scientific evidence can be organized and graded according to a hierarchy, identifying the rigor or power of the evidence in relation to fidelity of measurement and replication. Considerable variation exists, however, regarding organization of types and levels to identify rigor of scientific evidence (Bingman, Joyner, & Smith, 2003; Davies, 1999; Odom, Brantlinger, Gersten, Horner, Thompson & Harris, 2005; Sackett, Richardson, Rosenberg, & Haynes, 1997; Schlosser & Raghavendra, 2004). Further discussion is found in *Assistive Technology Standards for Teachers, Assistive Technology Implementation, and Student Performance in the Context of Evidence-based Practice* (Dalton, 2009).

Emerging Questions

Significant concerns regarding the interpretation and use of EBP in education exist in the literature. Primary criticisms include: (1) Narrowness of focus; priority value placed on RCT method of experimental research essentially devalues other research methods (Berliner, 2002; Erickson & Gutierrez, 2002), (2) Research evidence alone does not take into account the feasibility or desirability of practice (Biesta, 2007; Sanderson, 2003), (3) Research cannot supply reliable answers on 'what works' due to multiple variables of educational practice, i.e. values, judgments, knowledge, skills, and student factors (Berliner, 2002; Biesta, 2007; Hammersley, 2005), and (4) EBP devalues professional experience, judgment and culture, and restricts input into educational decision-making (Biesta, 2007; Erickson & Gutierrez, 2002; Hammersley, 2005). Clearly, educators are thinking carefully about the application and use of the construct of EBP in education, and many are challenging its current interpretation. Recognition of these stated concerns is important, so that a balanced view of EBP in the profession of education is developed and maintained.

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EARLY INTERVENTION SERVICES FOR CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES AND THEIR FAMILIES IN BOTSWANA

Nelly Malatsi

Conceptual Background

Over the years, the importance of investing in early childhood intervention has gained the increased attention of governments and agencies around the world. This is also supported by researches in the neurological, behavioural and social sciences (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Furthermore, there is an increased awareness on critical period for promoting physical, mental, and psychological growth by parents and caregivers that increased the demand on early child intervention services. Despite the importance of early intervention for learners with special educational needs, this area is still under-researched in Botswana, hence, this study was initiated.

Special Education and Early Childhood Intervention in Botswana

Education for students with special educational needs, the provision of services in Botswana began in 1969 by NGOs. In 1984, the Ministry of Education established a unit of Special Education; slowly it became a division in 1994. The focus was on secondary and primary education and early childhood was not considered.

With regard to the early childhood education, the services were mostly run by NGO and private organizations; therefore, access to these facilities was limited to those who can afford. This situation is not unusual in the context of sub-Saharan Africa. According to a report by World Bank (2004) only 16% of children could access early childhood education services in this region.

The Government of Botswana recognized the importance of Early Childhood education and included it in the revised national policy on education (RNPE, 1994), however, very little has been done for young children with disabilities. This dearth of provisions has been attributed to lack of space, lack of funds and inadequate teacher skills (NCE, 1993). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the provisions of early childhood intervention services and support needs for children with disabilities and their families in Botswana.

The Research

A mixed method approach was utilised to understand the perspectives of parents, teachers, government policy makers, and non-government organisation (NGO) coordinators, around the issue of early childhood intervention in Botswana. The sample comprised of 130 participants. The participants were selected using purposive sampling technique and participated voluntarily and all the ethical issues were taken care of prior to the data collection procedure. Multiple data-collection techniques were utilized. Ninety-nine special educators were given self-administered questionnaire and two focus group discussions were organised for parents. Ten special education programme coordinators were interviewed. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the

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quantitative data and the interviews were analysed using inductive logic. This presentation is focused on the qualitative aspect of the result. Through data analysis, four themes emerged; they were a) the policy b) service provision, c) family issues and community participation.

Results

The Policy. Although the Government of Botswana has a policy on early childhood education and care, the policy does not have substantive recommendations on early childhood intervention for children with disabilities. While recognizing the importance of early intervention for children with disabilities, the government is yet to make its commitment to fulfilling the recommendations of the 1994 Revised National Policy on Education regarding the development of infrastructure for universal pre-school education. These are due to shortage of trained staff, lack of resources and training facilities.

Service provision. Disability cuts across many sectors, therefore, the government of Botswana has established service provision in the different sectors such as Health, Local Government, Education and various NGOs. The study revealed that there are limitations in services and support, training of teachers, access to specialist support, absence of early identification and effective referral system. It was also found that lack of coordinated service provision between the different service providers, prevented smooth service delivery in early childhood intervention.

Family issues. This study revealed that families are faced with a number of challenges relating to their needs to support the child with disability. These include among others, lack of information about available services, and inadequate support (both emotional and financial). As pointed out earlier, services in Botswana are limited. Moreover, there were even more difficult to access by families that live in remote and less populated areas with limited government services. Families from remote areas were sometimes compelled to travel long distances to seek services elsewhere. This has significant financial implications for families who may also be poor and have limited access to employment.

Community participation. This study was concerned with families and the services they receive and the policy framework guiding such provision. As such, even though communities have a responsibility, little evidence of such was shown in practice. Pre-school education in Botswana is provided through partnership with local authorities, communities (VDCs), and NGOs (Government of Botswana, 1997). Unlike regular pre-school education, this study revealed that none of the existing disability programs is run by the community. The non-involvement of the community was attributed to the view that the community believed it was government and NGO's responsibility to look after people with disabilities (88%), while 65% of the respondents also thought it was due to lack of knowledge.

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**DOUBLE JEOPARDY: PLIGHT OF FEMALE STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN
BOTSWANA HIGHER EDUCATION**

Emmanuel Moswela
Chawapiwa Ontiretse
Sourav Mukhopadhyay

Introduction and Conceptual Background

Female students with disabilities are marginalized when it comes to health and social services particularly higher education (HE) and this has a significant impact on these individuals' quality of life. Widening access and participation of students with disabilities in HE would increase their chances of 1) obtaining and maintaining a higher income and 2) creating a means for lifelong independence and quality of life (Wehman, 2006). Success in HE depends on various micro and macro factors such as: policy, strong political will, institutional support services, assistive technology, favorable attitudes, accessible facilities and instructional accommodation (Chataika, 2010), however, these are rarely provided for female students with disabilities particularly in an African Context.

Although substantial recent research addresses the importance of HE for students with disabilities, this sector has remained under-researched in the context of Botswana, In Botswana, very little is known about the experiences of female students with disabilities in HE. Hence, this article is an attempt to describe the experiences of female students with disabilities in one of Botswana institution of HE.

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The Research

A qualitative research methodology was used to gain insights into experiences of female students with disabilities in HE. Nine female students with disabilities were purposively selected and engaged in a semi-structured focus group discussion. The discussion focused on the following issues: the student experiences, resources, and attitudes. Data were analyzed thematically using constant comparison method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Two main themes emerged namely: (i) socio-cultural issues and (ii) support systems.

Result

Socio-cultural Issues. Female students with disabilities expressed concerns about prevalent negative attitudes of lecturers and peers. Kuda (pseudo name) said: “I find it difficult to express my views in classes my contribution is always undervalued which limits my ability to take part in class.” In addition, female students with disabilities in Botswana are generally perceived as asexual, barren and cannot perform the traditional roles of a woman. These factors tend to shape the experiences of female students with disabilities in and outside the university community.

Support Systems. Several subthemes emerged under this theme namely: resources, instructional accommodation provisions and student support systems.

Resources. Participants expressed displeasure about inadequate resources. On the issue of lack appropriate resources, Linga said, “I feel excluded each time I want to use the library facility. The library does not have CCTV or a magnifier I have to use Disability Low Vision lab at times.” On a positive note the library is trying to improve access through procuring more e-books and on-line journals for student use. On the other hand, students were not oriented on these universally designed services. At the same time, Disability Support Services has also established a resource room and a computer lab with JAWS, Zoom Text software for students with disabilities.

Structural barriers. While there were ramps, assisted toilets, lifts, rails and automated doors in some of the buildings, it was noted that the gradient of the ramps were steep and very difficult for students with physical impairments to use.

Instructional accommodation. Most of the female students with disabilities had enrolled into “women dominated” programmes such as humanities and education. Participants reported limited instructional accommodation targeting this group of students. However, recently Disability Office was found to be involved in a series of initiatives aimed at enhancing access and participation.

Discussion and Recommendations

Females with disabilities find themselves in a double jeopardy status social constructed from the discrimination of being a woman and having a disability. It is taken for granted that female students are a homogenous group. This study revealed that access and participation in HE for

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female students with disabilities in Botswana is limited by socio-cultural issues and support systems. These findings are similar to those of studies done in southern Africa (Chataika, 2010; Howell, 2006; Howell & Lazarus, 2003; Matshedisho, 2007; Nkoane, 2006).

The present research suggests that the university needs to be proactive when it comes to enhancing access and participation of female students in HE. In addition, intensifying disability awareness initiatives for staff and students would further enhance access and participation of female students with disabilities in HE. It is hoped that the findings of this study will give a direction for widening access and participation for these students.

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DEAF EDUCATION TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ISSUES IN DEAF EDUCATION IN BOTSWANA

Kerileng D. Mpuang

Conceptual Framework and Background

Deaf children and Deaf adults constitute one group of people with disabilities in every society. It is this group that seems to be one of the most neglected as far as the education of children with disabilities in developing countries is concerned (Eleweke, 2002). The child who is Deaf encounters many problems under the current educational systems in Africa. Most African countries, such as Nigeria, Botswana, Zambia, and South Africa, for instance, profess a philosophy of equal educational opportunities for all their children. This means that, under such a philosophy, every child is given an equal chance to develop his or her potential as much as possible. The problem with this view is that it creates a contradictory environment between what is said and what is practiced. What is presently practiced that is, the current education system does not recognize Deaf learners within the school system (Abosi & Makunga, 2005). For example, curricula or the schemes of work that guide teachers are designed in such ways that every child in the class is regarded as above average in intelligence.

The formal educational provision for the Deaf started in 1979. The school for the Deaf in Ramotswa was started in 1979 under the auspices of Dr. Ian Kennedy, a German Ear Nose Throat (ENT) Specialist. Having worked in Ramotswa in the 1960s Kennedy saw it worthwhile to start education for the Deaf in Botswana because there was no provision for Deaf students in Botswana. Currently, there are 16 units, five stimulation centers and three special schools for students with disabilities in Botswana (Abosi & Makunga, 2005; Government of Botswana, 1993).

Currently, the Botswana Government offers a ten-year basic compulsory education up to junior secondary level. Progression to senior secondary is on merit. At primary level, education is offered in special residential schools and units in mainstream schools for those with severe to profound hearing loss. This is mainly so because of a concentration of resources and effective use of sign language as a medium of instruction. Those who are hard of hearing are taught in an inclusive setting, alongside with their hearing counterparts. At junior secondary level, students who are Deaf and hard of hearing are educated in special units and inclusive setting where

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appropriate, Deaf or hard of hearing students who make it to senior secondary, are educated in an inclusive setting. Sign language is provided for those who are Deaf (Ministry of Education, Skills, and Development, 2008).

At the same time education for Deaf children in Botswana has been characterized by simmering tension and struggles over two key policy issues. The first area of conflict and struggle throughout its history has been that of the methods of communication used and the second is the type of educational provisions. These policy issues have continued to be present in Botswana up to this date (Kisanji, 2003).

Research

The participants were purposively selected from schools that offered Deaf education. The study surveyed 96 Deaf educators of which 78 were teachers of the Deaf and 18 administrators. Twenty five of those who participated were males and 71 were females. Teachers and administrators that participated did so voluntarily. A two part questionnaire was specifically used by the researcher for this study. The first part consisted of 21- items on a five point Likert scale to measure Deaf educators' perceptions of issues in Deaf Education. The overall reliability alpha (0.68) was obtained. The second part consisted of open- ended questions. Participants who consented to participate in the study were given a questionnaire to complete. Factor analysis was carried out for the quantitative data and for qualitative data inductive logic was used.

Results

Principal Components Analysis was run. Component solutions of 1 through 5 components were run to see what the resulting solutions would look like. Of the five solutions, the researcher settled for the three components because of the homogeneity of items in each component. Three major components emerged and these included; *more support*, *communication problems*, and *not enough professionals*. Later on t-tests were run and it was found that there were no significant differences between teachers and administrators in the perceptions of deaf education in Botswana.

The open-ended questions were analyzed using inductive logic and several themes emerged. These collaborated with the ones from the quantitative data and they included lack of funding and resources, lack of parental involvement in their children's education, guidance, counseling, and psychology, information technology, curriculum, vocational, and deaf education, speech therapy and audiology, lack of funding and resources for component "more support." Sign language and interpreting addressed the component communication problems while examinations, lack of trained teachers and other personnel, lack of governmental support, lack of support from other professionals, addressed the last component "not enough professionals". For the open-ended questions, there seemed to be an overlap in responses from participants thus signifying that indeed they felt that there were a lot of crucial Deaf Education issues that needed to be addressed.

Given the available research literature and findings from this study, it is imperative that special

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education policies in Botswana are put to effect in order to meet the educational needs of children with disabilities and Deaf children in particular. Policy must meet practice through the implementation of proper legislation, adequate support from government, funding, supply of both human and material resources, and parental involvement, so that inclusive education for Deaf children may be successful.

Recommendations

Collaboration among all those involved in the education of Deaf students is the only way to improve the educational success of Deaf students. This could be achieved through both planning and collaboration to ensure that Deaf children are offered high- quality, accessible academic opportunities. The national educational policies, when effectively implemented, will afford children who are Deaf opportunities to achieve their potential.

Suggestions for Future Research

There is a need for a systematic study which will focus on promoting access to the general curriculum for Deaf students. There is also a need to conduct comprehensive, methodologically-sound research into effects of inclusion: Researchers must determine empirically the educational and social-emotional impacts of inclusion on students with differing characteristics.

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USING AUDIO TAPE AND INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES IN IMPROVING ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION OF PUPILS WITH INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES IN SELECTED SPECIAL SCHOOLS IN IBADAN, NIGERIA

Tolu Eni-Olorunda
Olusola Akintunde Adediran

Background

In Nigeria, pupils with intellectual disabilities are faced with a number of challenges ranging from lack of adequate financial support from government and cultural beliefs which do not favour their acceptability in the society. English reading comprehension is considered very vital in any academic pursuit as it is required for the understanding of other subjects. Comprehension, according to Jindrich (1998), is aimed at improving one's understanding of a language either written or spoken. Alimi and Adeosun (2001) viewed reading comprehension as a tool required for effective functioning for all academic disciplines. Socio-economic status of parents is also considered to be a factor in the ability of pupils in English reading comprehension. Ezewu (1983) remarked that children from high socio-economic status have an advantage over those from low socio-economic status, because stimulating educational materials such as story books, television, toys are made available to them. Scholars such as Ntukidem (1997) and Eni-Olorunda (1998) have adopted different strategies in instructing pupils with intellectual disability. Carpenter (1983) reported a better performance of audiotape over conventional method. Ntukidem (1997) reported that many researchers found individualized (one-to-one) strategy the most effective teaching strategy even for persons with severe retardation.

This study focused on the use of audiotape and individualized instructional strategies in improving English reading Comprehension of pupils with intellectual disability in selected special schools in Ibadan. To this effect, three null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H₀₁: There is no significant main effect of treatment on English reading comprehension of pupils with intellectual disability.

H₀₂: There is no significant main effect of socio-economic status on English reading comprehension of pupils with intellectual disability.

H₀₃: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and socio-economic status on English reading comprehension of pupils with intellectual disability.

Method

A pre-test-post test, control group, true experimental design was adopted.

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Participants. Thirty primary four participants with mild intellectual disability were purposively selected from three special schools in Ibadan. They were assigned in tens to each of the experimental groups and the control.

Instrument. Slosson's Intelligence Test, Socio-economic status scale, English Reading Comprehension Test, and Audio-taped instructional strategy.

Procedure. Primary 4 English language special teachers were the resource persons in this study for effectiveness. A week before the commencement of the study, they were given a pretest. Short comprehension passages were audio-taped. Pupils in Experimental group one were made to sit in a circle form while the tape was played over and over. Questions were asked from the passages, correct answers were reinforced appropriately. Resource teacher in Experimental group two (individualized strategy) read the passages to the pupils on one-to-one basis severally. Questions were asked from the passages read to them. Correct answers were reinforced appropriately. Control group were introduced to the conventional method. After the eight weeks of treatment, a post-test was administered to the three groups. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, and analysis of covariance.

Results and Discussion

Results indicated a significant effect of treatment on pupils with intellectual disabilities with, pupils in the individualized instructional strategy having highest mean score, followed by those in the audio-taped group, and the control had the least. This finding corroborates the work of Ntukidem (1997). Surprisingly too, findings revealed that pupils from low socio-economic status had the highest post-test mean score over the other two groups. This finding however negated the findings of Haigh (2005). This study also revealed no significant interaction effect of treatment and socio-economic status on pupils' comprehension.

This study has revealed the importance of appropriate instructional strategies in improving English reading comprehension of pupils with intellectual disability. Individualized instructional strategy proved to be more effective than the audio taped strategy. However, the two strategies if put in use would go a long way in helping these children to learn within their ability.

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**THE POTENTIAL OF CONCEPT MAPPING IN TEACHING, RESEARCH AND
EVALUATION LINKED TO INCLUSIVE EDUCATION**

Sue Pearson

The safe arrival of the delegates to this conference owes much to the quality of maps that were used. Cartography is an activity which helps us to understand our environment, to navigate our way through it or plan activities within it. Each map is an artefact that can be used by an individual or aid participation in a group setting. They are multi-purpose used for rigorous analysis or to gain an overall impression; to plot a route to a destination; to summarize information about a known location or gain insights into an unfamiliar location. Each visual depiction involves a degree of selectivity and simplification.

Concept mapping can be used in a largely similar way of representing mental understandings; technology through which to explore where we have been, where we are (and potentially) where we are going (Trochim, 1999). Concept maps (CMs) are a visual representation of our 'thought world' which can be used to gain understandings of conceptualizations, misconceptions, interconnections between ideas and conceptual progress.

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This paper considers the application of CMs in the context of both education about inclusive education (e.g. a Masters level course) and as an inclusive approach to the education of children. Inclusion is complex and contentious, characteristics that CMs can accommodate. Equally, teaching diverse groups of pupils requires flexible, dynamic approaches. Drawing attention to the potential of concept mapping in the education of both teachers and pupils is consistent with the proposition that professional development related to inclusion should be inclusive, and model for the participants teaching and learning approaches that acknowledge and celebrate diversity.

Concept Mapping

Concept mapping is located in the constructivist paradigm and reflects the view that learning has to be related to pre-existing knowledge. Each CM is a visual representation of an individual's ideas, 'a visual road map showing some of the pathways we may take to connect meanings of concepts in propositions' (Novak & Gowin, 1984 p.15). The final word in that quotation is a reminder that CMs are composed of semantic units each of which link two concepts e.g. teachers (concept) plan (linkage) classroom activities (concept); teachers (concept) encourage (linkage) pupils (concept). It is also possible to make cross-links between the various concepts though these should also be semantic units. Each map has an 'architecture', a term used to refer to the structure or configuration of the ideas.

The CM may be hierarchical with the most important ideas at the top or 'spider maps' with the trigger word at the centre. Varied ways are used to generate CMs including partial architecture (i.e. providing a partially completed map with the opportunity to complete), prompted (i.e. the mapper is providing some of the concept and links) or 'free hand'.

Concept Maps in Education

CMs have been used in schools for multiple purposes including in science education (Van Zele, Lenaerts, & Wieme, 2004) and maths education (McGowen, 1999). They have also been used in the education of adults e.g. nurses (Trowbridge & Wandersee, 1994) and trainee teachers (Kinchin & Allias, 2005).

Concept Map Analysis

Analysis can happen at individual level or across cohorts (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The method of analysis can be quantitative or qualitative. With regard to the former, the analysis can consider factors such as the number of concepts, and the number of links and cross links i.e. the complexity of the architecture. Another approach may be to look at the degree of alignment between the maps drawn by the learner and that representing the conventionally accepted understanding. Conceptual development can also be tracked using multiple CMs. For example, if a concept maps is drawn at the end of a block of teaching, how does it compare with one produced prior to that experience?

A qualitative approach to analysis has also been proposed (Kinchin, Hay, & Adams, 2000) based on the evidence that there are differences between the structural organization of maps drawn by

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novices and experts (Pearson, Scott, & Sugden, 2011). Across cohorts using two and three dimension matrices, the similarities and differences between individual can be analyzed (Kane & Trochim, 2007). The workshop will illustrate these approaches and explore the benefits.

Use of the Data from Concept Mapping

Both the learner and the provider can gain from CMs. Individuals can be informed and empowered through comparing and reflecting on CMs drawn at different points in time or revisions to an earlier version. Planning, monitoring and evaluation can all be informed through concept mapping. Equally, they are part of image-based research available for analysis in their own right and as an artefact in a participatory approach.

Conclusion

Cartography has been seen as facilitating human activity whether that involves exploration or more mundane ‘getting to the right place’ activities. Similarly, concept mapping can make a cost-effective, time-efficient, enjoyable contribution to the education of adults or children. Since selectivity and simplification are involved in constructing maps, the exclusionary notion of right/wrong answers is avoided. The focus is on revealing individual’s or groups (developing) understandings of complex issues.

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THE ART OF TEACHING IN A CHANGING WORLD: THE NEW METHODS

Ojo Oluwafemi Samuel

Introduction

Education can be defined as the transmission of culture from one generation to another. It is a process by which society inculcates desire, skills, attitude and behavior to its younger ones. Fafuwa (1985) sees education as a way of learning desirable skills and behavior by simply imitating their parents and older members of the community. Modern civilization has however saddled the responsibility for educating citizens of all societies on the school (Akume, 2004). The school is the institution with the statutory responsibility of providing education. Recent changes in the world and within nations have brought about changes in educational goals. Teachers therefore have the challenges of devising new approaches to provide effective teaching which would meet the desired goals.

Definition of Teaching

Teaching is the art of communicating with the learners with the aim of improving his skills, helping him to acquire new skills or imparting to him some desirable attitude, beliefs and feelings in order to bring about particular changes in the person (Akinboyeje, 2005). The efficiency and effectiveness of teaching can be measured by the quality, of behavior change that is manifested by the learner after he had been exposed to a given amount of teaching.

Methods of Teaching

Methods of teaching refer to systematic ways of teaching or imparting knowledge. Teaching methods are expected to be chosen to suit particular types of learning like; learners with one special needs like visually impaired, gifted and talented, physically disabilities among others.

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Factors Guiding the Selection of Methods

The nature of objectives.

The maturity of the students.

The nature of the students.

Physical equipment and facilities available.

The skill and qualification of the teacher. (Ekanem, 2001)

The teacher use methods that are congruent with his students and experience

The lecture method. The lecture method is known as the traditional method of teaching. This method is teacher centered. The teachers simply points out facts, figures and ideas, students are expected to simply swallow them. However, it has been discredited for the fact that it does not give learners opportunity to develop problem-solving skills which are the landmark of modern education. New methods of teaching have been introduced to improve the teaching and learning process. The methods though many and varied, have one common feature – learner centeredness.

Dramatization. It is used by learners to convert what is to be learnt into drama. It makes learning of facts or skills, more interesting and real for example; a court session could be acted where class members acts as judge and lawyers. Some of the advantages are; it makes learning real, it makes learning permanent, it helps students develop cooperative spirit, it helps students develop confidence and high self-esteem among others (Dada, 2000).

The Inquiry Method. Learners are curious and inquisitive individuals. They try to understand happening in the universe and their immediate environment. It allows learners to find out for themselves what they are puzzled. The teacher identifies a problem and establishes a learning climate. He then uses questions to guide the learners to discover for themselves. Some observed phenomena in the environment e.g. a topic such as the phenomenon of rainfall “how rains form” can call for the use of inquiry method. It encourages independent learning and promotes the spirit of inquiry.

The Questioning Method. This is the method by which a teacher uses questions to stimulate interaction between him and the class. The purposes of questions are;

To make students think.

To secure and maintain attention and interest.

To reveal students’ difficulties.

To give students opportunity to express their thoughts and feelings.

To introduce a new lesson.

The Project Method. A project is the cooperative study of a real life situation by a class under a supervision of a teacher. It involves doing something concrete and practical. The role of the teacher is to direct students in the process of carrying out the project. Project method can be used in a topic such as “Oil exploitation.” The topic could be broken down into sub-topic such as; how oil was discovered in the environment (or any other mineral resources that are available in the environment), how it was formed, uses, its marketing and economic benefits.

Group of five students each could be assigned to each subtopic. The project could last for a

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period of two weeks. The teacher should closely monitor the activities of the various groups to ensure that they are doing what is expected of them. At the end of the project, the teacher should collect, inspect, grade and pass comments on the students' performance.

Computer Assisted Instruction

In the 21st Century, the computer has impacted on all facets of human activity; the Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) is a method of instruction in which a learner interacts with a computer to produce learning. Lessons to be learnt through computer assisted instruction are prepared using computer language. This developed lesson is called computer application. This computer application is stored in the computer hard disk (secondary memory) (Morakinyo 1998).

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to expose participants who are not trained teachers to the rudiments of teaching. There are many methods of teaching available for the teacher. However, only few have been selected and discussed. It is hoped that these methods can help the novice in the profession of the chalk to effectively impart knowledge and skills in a teacher - learner relationship.

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ACCOMMODATING STUDENTS AFFECTED BY CHRONIC ILLNESSES

Patricia A. Fennell
Paula Leitz
Ann Fantauzzi

Introduction

The prevalence of chronic illness is increasing among all age groups, including the student population. This increase is coincident with improvements in medicine that have converted once-terminal diseases, such as cancer, into chronic conditions, and with the overall rise in prevalence of chronic conditions such as diabetes, asthma, autoimmune diseases, depression and autism.

Education, poverty and chronic illness are intertwined, as school-age children with chronic conditions (or who are caring for family members with chronic conditions) are at higher risk for school absenteeism and drop-out, and lack of education is a major cause of lifetime poverty and poor health.

Educational institutions are challenged to accommodate chronically ill students to maintain students' participation in the educational process, comply with disability law, avoid disparities among the acutely (statically) ill, chronically (dynamically) ill, and the non-disabled population, and minimize the long-term impact of under-education on income and health outcomes. Our goal is to assist teachers, policymakers, administrators, students and governments in better understanding chronic illness and in establishing programs and policies that accommodate the chronically ill and family members of the chronically ill to aid their participation in the educational process and contribute toward their long-term economic security and health.

Chronic Illness and Education

Chronic conditions are defined by the World Health Organization as "health problems that require ongoing management over a period of years or decades" (World Health Organization, 2002). They include illnesses such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, mental illness, autoimmune diseases, asthma and communicable diseases such as HIV/AIDS.

Managing and accommodating chronic illness is one of the greatest challenges facing our health care, employment and educational systems today. Worldwide, chronic conditions are responsible for 60% of the global disease burden; by 2020, 80% of the disease burden in developing countries will be tied to chronic conditions. The escalating costs of chronic conditions have serious economic, social and health-care resource consequences for governments worldwide (World Health Organization, 2002).

The link between chronic illness and poverty is clear, as individuals with chronic conditions face higher levels of unemployment, underemployment and school absenteeism and increased costs for medical care (World Health Organization, 2002). Education is key to erasing poverty: a year of primary school increases an individual's lifetime wages by 5-15%; each additional year of

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secondary school increases wages 15-25% (Global Campaign for Education, 2009). Worldwide, 75 million children are not receiving an education; a third of them have a disability. Millions more leave school to care for a family member who suffers from a chronic condition or to join the workforce to help support their families.

Chronic illness presents a series of issues that make school attendance difficult. Many of the challenges of accommodating chronically ill students are due to the nature of chronic illness itself. Chronic illnesses often have a relapsing-remitting pattern, can be static or dynamic (Fennell, 2003) and are frequently "invisible" (as contrasted with obvious disabilities like blindness, hearing impairment or mobility disorders). There is also a lack standardized protocols for accommodating students with chronic illness.

Our mission is to improve the educational outcomes of chronically ill students through training of educational institutions about the unique nature of chronic vs. static illness and how to manage, mainstream, and accommodate students with chronic illness using established pedagogical strategies and the Fennell Four Phase Model of chronic illness.

Fennell Four-Phase Treatment Model

The Fennell Four-Phase Model (FFPM) It is a validated framework for explaining how people who are experiencing chronic illness or trauma can adapt to the changes in their lives (Jason, Fennell, Taylor, Fricano, & Halpert, 2000; Fennell, Jason, & Klein, 1999; Fennell, 1998; Jason, Fricano, Taylor, Halpert, & Fennell, 2000; Jason, Fennell, Klein, Fricano, & Halpert, 1999; Fennell, 2003; Fennell, 2006). It outlines four phases: **Crisis**, **Stabilization**, **Resolution**, and **Integration** that people commonly pass through as they learn to incorporate their altered physical abilities or psychological outlook into their personality and lifestyle.

In **Phase 1 Crisis**, the individual moves from onset of the condition to an emergency period when he or she knows that something is seriously wrong. In **Phase 2 Stabilization**, the individual discovers that he or she fails, sometimes repeatedly, to return to normal, regardless of interventions or behavior. In **Phase 3 Resolution**, the individual recognizes deeply that his or her old life will never return. In **Phase 4 Integration**, the individual defines a new self in which illness may be an important factor, but it is not the only or even the primary one in his or her life.

Pedagogical Approaches

For students who have chronic illnesses it is crucial that their learning is supported through appropriate accommodations that consider how students learn best, understand the needs of diverse learners, and employ best instructional practices. These include **differentiation**, which looks at assessment, teaching, learning, classroom roles, use of time and curriculum in order to meet each student where they are (Tomlinson, 1999); **Brain Based Learning**, which assesses a student's learning and task approach styles along with knowledge of left and right brain functions (Connell, 2005); and **Gardner's Theories of Multiple Intelligences**, which describes 8 kinds of intelligences: Bodily-kinesthetic; Interpersonal; Verbal-linguistic; Logical-mathematical; Naturalistic; Intrapersonal; Visual-spatial; and Musical (Gardner, 1993).

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Outcomes and Strategies

By blending the FFPM approach with pedagogical approaches such as differentiated instruction and brain-based learning, educators can develop individualized approaches to teaching students with chronic conditions that meet the students "where they are."

1. Review and assess activities of daily living (ADLs) with the goal of stabilizing activity and health, 2. Restructure ADLs, work, socialization and personal development, 3. Use symptom logs and activity logs to predict patterns of activity and health. Establish self-regulation and structure, 4. Construct a personal narrative, find meaning for suffering, 5. Use timers to establish priorities, 6. Daily, weekly task scheduling, establishing self regulation, 7. Scale assignments and establish priorities, 8. Curriculum compacting - eliminate redundancy in curriculum to establish core competencies, 9. Make educational experience relevant to personal narrative, and 10. Utilize study techniques and strategies and visual aids.

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**USING BOARD GAMES IN THE GLOBAL CLASSROOM PROJECT: PROVIDING
DIFFERENTIATED LEARNING AND CURRICULUM WITHIN GENERAL AND
SPECIAL EDUCATION**

Cilel Smith
Helen Trory

The focus of this paper is to evaluate and contribute to the concepts of educating every learner, every day and in particular within a global responsibility. The concept of a global responsibly in itself already constrains and also at the same time offers a contribution without boundaries. This paradoxical concept of globalism may or may not be construed within the context that it is used. Therefore the concept, 'global responsibility' offers a generalized understanding that the emphasis and obligation lies with all the countries and is therefore every individual's responsibility or duty to contribute or strive towards the same goal and in this instance education for all children, every day. This is the concept on which the Global Classroom is based.

A whole school approach therefore shares the responsibility of each individual learner and also set out to include parents, community liaison workers, faith leaders and specialist that evaluate and assess each individual child. Profiling, and in this instance vulnerable and refugee children, provide valuable insights into their previous learning experiences and may also contribute to the strategies, provisions and support that schools and educators may propose to offer refugee children, who enter their schools for the first time due to forced migration. The Global

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Classroom therefore provides the opportunity for children to be inducted, assessed and included into the new school environment, while working on their education portfolios in collaboration with other children and provides the learners with a place of safety, familiarity and an opportunity to socialize and meet other newly arrived or English learners. Therefore, Gardner (2001) argues that inclusive classrooms “improve language and academic development and offers a partnership of identification of pupils and their needs” (p.78). The value of developing portfolios may or may not highlight specific needs, competent skills or lack thereof.

Furthermore, according to Klenowski (2003) “it aims to help students develop and further their learning and can provide the focus for review, reflection, target setting and action planning and direct what skills, concepts and knowledge have been demonstrated” (Klenowski, 2003, p.22). The learning environment and milieu may be argued as essential to either support or enhance learning and according to Parlett and Hamilton (1977) “represents a network or nexus of cultural, social, institutional and psychological variables” (p.11). It may be argued that it is within these variables and environment that the complexities of refugee education and learning may be identified. Therefore, an understanding of refugees their learning and changing environment may offer an insight into their individual needs.

In the context of this paper it is essential to construct rather than define Refugeeism in order to consider the complexities of forced migration, vulnerable children, children with specific and special needs, their experiences, learning and individual uniqueness. Soguk (1999) argues that There is no intrinsic paradigmatic refugee figure to be at once recognized and registered of historical contingencies. Instead there are a thousand multifarious refugee experiences and a thousand refugee figures whose meanings and identities are negotiated in the process of displacement in time and place (Soguk, 1999 p.4)

Refugeeism, therefore is the term used to explore the concept and processes of ‘shared experiences’ and needs, while recognizing the various units of unique life worlds of each individual refugee child. Thus in order to conceptualize ‘refugeeism’ it is necessary to consider ways that refugee children learn within their changing and often traumatic environment.

However, essential is the understanding how learning took place before, during and after migration. Bronfenbrenner (1992) argues the importance of context and the influence of the environment on child development and learning and states that “development occurs in context and therefore can only be properly understood in context and is the progressive, mutual accommodation throughout life course between active, growing human being, and the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives” (Bronfenbrenner, 1992, p.187-249). Are we then to conclude from Bronfenbrenner and the concept of Globalism that each society determines what a person knows and learns and that this changes when that society disappears as perceived in the concept of refugees and migration? How do we then begin to conceptualize learning within this diverse society, cultures and experiences, where often children have not been to school before, have gaps in their learning or have been exposed to informal, traditional or out of date methods of schooling?

Considering these experiences, how is it possible to identify within these changes and ‘chaos’ the [Back to Table of Contents](#)

specific needs of individual migrant children? Additionally, the impact of trauma, loss, bereavement and fear may offer a distraction to the evaluation and identification of learning and specific needs (ICSN) of children arriving in English schools.

A special educational need within England is defined as when a child "...has a learning difficulty which calls for special educational provision to be made for him or her" (DfEE, 2005, Section 312). Traditionally the identification of need (specific or special) has relied upon consideration of the individual child. Assumptions are made that individual traits and abilities are relatively permanent; patterns of strengths and weaknesses can be determined via educational assessment and given prime importance over other factors e.g. the environment; and that teaching programs remediate weaknesses (Wall, 2011), perpetuating a psycho-medical model (Hodkinson & Vickerman, 2009). These concepts can be challenged within the global classroom.

To determine the specific long term needs of the refugee child, consideration should be given to four distinct areas: biological, cognitive, behavioral and environmental factors (Frederickson & Cline, 2009). It is therefore necessary to incorporate the cyclical approach of observing, planning, intervention and monitoring advocated in Wall (2011) within a system of environmental analysis, profiling and the compilation of portfolios. An early way to facilitate the start of this meta-awareness is the use of board games.

Against a backdrop of environment, profiling, portfolios and the specific needs of refugee children, is the use of board games, as seen in ways of understanding major aspects of a refugee child's world and their perception of their learning experiences. Therefore according to Smith (2006) The My New School board games aims to 'assess new arrivals on their emotional self, school readiness, their understanding of schools and learning, rules, space direction, reading, writing, speaking and listening abilities and decision making choices' (Smith, 2006, p.2). Furthermore, the use of the board game identifies characteristics in education, psychological, social and emotional needs. These characteristics are recorded against the abilities and skills that the migrant children portray in a relaxed, fun environment such as within the Global Classroom, working with peers not being aware of being observed, assessed or evaluated. According to Smith (2006) board games can be used to track learning abilities and experiences, through observing skills such as numeracy, counting, sequence and reading ability, ability to follow instructions, resilience adaptation, school preparedness and readiness as well as identifying specific needs. Board games therefore may be used as a reinforcement learning model, where according to Ghory (2004) the child is "not taught how to behave rather it has a free choice in how to behave and many board games can be seen as simplified codified models of problems that occur in real life" (Ghory, 2004, p.6). Similarly Klabbbers (2006) argues that "games as a form of play is the expression of human and social systems as well as models of social systems with clear intentions in mind" (p.37). In conclusion board games are non intrusive and encourage children to take part, therefore providing the opportunity to be assessed, profiled and to develop an ICSN that can be forwarded to specific teachers or may be used for further investigation such as in the instance of a child with specific or special needs.

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NEW MEDIA, NEW OPPORTUNITIES, NEW THREATS

Agnieszka Sekułowicz

When a human being masters a new skill, it becomes part of him/her (Davis & Braun, 2001). It is also the case with, among others, the new media which have stormed into our lives, transforming them completely. The internet most significantly contributes to the improvement of the situation of people with disabilities. It opens up new opportunities for them, it helps them overcome barriers, and it makes their lives less burdensome. Owing to the internet, many spheres of activity become accessible to people with disabilities; these spheres include, among others, communicating with others at a distance, starting inter-human relationships, using banking services, finding information about new job openings, shopping or handling office-related formalities.

Given the current development of computer technology, people with disabilities are not only recipients of specific messages but also agents in the internet culture. They postulate, they create, and they also express the critique of the world of matter, the world of thought and the world of spirit. The internet constitutes an integrative social, cultural, and political space, whose resources are quickly and easily accessible.

The internet constitutes a potential new environment, the participants of which can function beyond any conventions of the real world. People with intellectual disabilities can make contacts with others without being forced to reveal their deficit. Using the internet can also remove many psychological barriers (Bowker & Tuffin, 2007). Owing to the new media people with disabilities can alleviate their loneliness and social isolation.

Thanks to the access to the internet, people with disabilities can increase the level of their own social subjectivity. Via the internet, they have an unlimited access to the world's cultural treasury. Virtual museums have been in operation for years, owing to which everybody can see the collections of practically any museum without even leaving their flat. Petersburg's Hermitage, for example, has a very good website, which shows particular rooms together with their detailed descriptions. The website is composed in four languages: English, German, Russian and French. Also in Poland, most museums, for example the Wilanow palace and the National Museum in Warsaw, have their internet equivalents. For people with disabilities it is very convenient to be able to move freely in the museum of their choice while they are actually staying at home.

Not only museums are accessible on-line. The legacy of the eminent Austrian philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein has been put on the internet by means of software developed by the University of Bergen. Its purpose is to make all scholarly works and writings by Wittgenstein easily available. On the internet, one can view about twenty thousand pages of his manuscripts and printed texts.

A possibility to help other people is very important in therapies of people with disabilities. Thanks to it, opinions, feelings and experiences can be exchanged, but first of all relationships

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are established with people who have similar lives and similar feelings. In case of these people, seeking similar people who face similar problems, doubts, and queries serves as an important strategy of self-management; this influences formation of their self-image and becomes a factor determining their self-fulfillment. It is easily noticeable that the internet is conducive to establishing various 'therapeutic' groups, such as Alcoholics Anonymous or Wives of Alcoholics Anonymous. A Polish example could be provided by the web portal www.niepelnosprawni.pl (meaning 'www.disabled.pl') run by the Friends of Integration Association. Organizations which have their internet websites include in them not only the information concerning the organization itself (its statute, boards, membership, etc.), but also medical and therapeutic information as well as addresses of counseling centers and clinics.

Unfortunately, the internet is not only the space which is conducive to development and e-integration. Because the IT education is insufficiently saturated with pedagogical components, we are confronting the social consent to various forms of violence, increased aggression, growing crime rate, pathology and frustration.

The Internet is a space in which various forms of manipulation are frequently practiced. People with intellectual disability will be particularly vulnerable to such manipulation and they won't realize what consequences their actions in the dating portal or in the internet shop could have. Paradoxically, we cannot predict some of their actions or operations here because, complicated though such procedures might be, they could be mastered and carried out by a person with disability.

Using solely the internet can prove addictive. The addiction can initially be imperceptible, but in the course of time, as it develops and intensifies, it starts to cause a lot of real harm. One of its harmful effects is undoubtedly growing isolation, withdrawal from social interactions, and avoidance of meetings and relations with other people. An addicted person's life is concentrated around the computer, and hence it is detached from the quotidian, real world. That is why such people do not know each other, cannot express their feelings and emotions, manifest considerable fear of contacts with others, release all the tensions by means of the machine and feel secure only in front of the computer. Instead of entering social interactions, people with disabilities lock themselves off in their homes and create an illusion of a 'normal' life with a computer.

However, addiction to the Internet is not the only problem we can perceive. Unfortunately, the internet frequently proves a place not appropriate for everybody, and particularly not for people with disabilities. In 2006, the Britain-based Nomens in cooperation with the United Nations Organization, conducted a research of 100 popular internet websites from 20 countries, investigating especially on their accessibility to the disabled. The results of the research were highly disquieting: it was revealed that the overwhelming majority of the websites did not conform to the international standards of accessibility. As many as 93% of the websites did not have the suitable description of graphically conveyed information, which made it impossible for blind people and people with impaired vision to access the information. The code of 98% of the websites did not meet any standards. 78% of the websites did not have sufficient contrast, which would enable people suffering from color blindness to read them comfortably. Poor textual

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description of the graphical elements of the majority of the internet websites made it impossible for the blind to ‘see’ with the use of special reading software which transforms text into speech. Most of the Internet browsers and state-of-the-art computers are equipped with programs for ‘reading the websites’ or enlarging the image. However, venturing to use such option in the website which is not adapted to people with disabilities, can result in the website’s actually ‘falling apart’: as the size of the font increases, the text breaks into pieces, parts of it slide beyond the margins of the websites and on the whole it becomes illegible.

Media technologies produce a new quality of reality. Very frequently this reality emerges nearly imperceptibly; as Marshall McLuhan puts it: ‘fish do not know that water exists until they are stranded ashore’ (McLuhan, 2001). According to McLuhan, the media are ‘man’s extensions.’ By means of technology, a human being is able to extend—nearly literally—the function of each body part, and with the development of technology also the senses, which influences the way in which reality is perceived (Sierocki, 2006). McLuhan’s concept of ‘man’s extensions’ suggests how a human being externalizes himself/herself, simultaneously changing both the relationships among the remaining participants of social life as well as extra-social reality. We can understand extensions as everything that society produces among people, but also as what mediates between a human being and reality and what makes it possible to create new dimensions of reality. Each kind of technology or media reshapes inter-human relationships as well as our world-perception (Sierocki, 2006). Technology and all media which become man’s extensions make the social space denser so to say. They introduce new perspectives and new ways of thinking about reality, of perceiving it, understanding it and changing it. Human reactions show that the media are something more than simply tools. The media can encroach upon our personal space, they can evoke emotional reactions, they demand concentration of attention, they can threaten us, they can influence memory and they can change the concept of what is natural. The media are thus full-right members of our social world (Reeves & Nass, 2003). Nevertheless, we must remember that not only able-bodied people use the Internet and that it is our duty to ensure that disabled people have the optimal and easy access to all the technological novelties. We must see to it that the Internet does not become another space of exclusion of people with disabilities.

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PARENTS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITY AND THE RISK OF BURNOUT

Małgorzata Sekułowicz

For the first time, the professional burnout syndrome was described in 1974 by Freudenberger (Freudenberger, Richelson 1990), who distinguished a series of specific behaviors, including irritability, sense of the chronic fatigue, disillusionment, deepening apathy, changeability of moods, frequent headaches and considerable disease-proneness. Afterwards, the issues of burnout were investigated by Maslach and Jackson (1981), who analyzed the loss of resources in people helping others. The definition they proposed is a multilayered construct, which consists of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and the lowered sense of personal accomplishment.

In 1979, Ruth Sullivan and her collaborators advanced a concept of the burnout syndrome reported in parents of children with developmental disorders. The parents' life is marked by such characteristic features as loneliness, isolation, frustration, helplessness, hopelessness, the sense of 'being trapped', and the lack of prospect of significant improvement of the quality of life (Sullivan et al., 1979). According to the researchers, such situation leads to mental and physical exhaustion, which results from a long-lasting engagement in care for a disabled child. Furthermore, as Sullivan's research team concluded, such burnout syndrome is caused also by the parents' experience of not receiving appropriate help from others as well as by their sense of lack of competence sufficient to take proper care of the child.

Taking into account the difficult situation of parents of children with disability, which can lead to the loss of strength and emergence of serious problems with managing the rehabilitation process, I tried to distinguish factors which can define burnout. For this purpose I attempted to establish the type and extent of the risk of burnout in parents of children with disability.

To specify the research problem more precisely, I posed additional (detailed) questions: *(i)* What is the intensity of emotional exhaustion in the parents participating in the study? *(ii)* What is the risk of an objectifying, cynical behavior towards the child? *(iii)* Do the parents face the risk of the lowered sense of personal accomplishment, and if they do what is the extent of this threat?

The research was conducted by means of a diagnostic survey and had the character of a pilot study diagnosing the problem. The research is a starting point for further analyses concerning not only the risk of burnout but also the fundamental factors which cause the process.

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In the research, I used a questionnaire which I had constructed myself. The starting point for devising the questionnaire was the theory of burnout as a multi-factor process of failure to handle stress, including the three components distinguished by the burnout researchers: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lowered sense of personal accomplishment. The questions included in the questionnaire were formulated on the basis of research results obtained by Sullivan (19791) and Pisula (1994). The survey contained 40 closed questions. To describe emotional exhaustion 13 items were used, for depersonalization — 14 items, and for the sense of lowered personal accomplishment — 13 items.

The study included the sample of 33 parents whose children were diagnosed with autistic disorder. The selection to the group was purposeful since the results of earlier research suggested a serious risk of burnout in this group of parents. The results obtained in the research suggest that the parents included in the study belong to the group threatened with burnout.

Emotional exhaustion is the most serious problem; on this scale most of the participants scored far above the average. Most frequently, the parents reported the sense of helplessness (28 participants stated that *they felt it either very frequently or from time to time*); 13 participants stated that *they saw the world only in the grey color*; the same number stated that *they were overwhelmed by taking care of their child, that they felt they were at the end of their tether and that they failed to manage the work with their child properly*; 11 participants stated that *everyday care for their child was a real effort for them, they felt fatigues as soon as they woke up and they were entirely exhausted by their family's situation*; 18 participants stated that *they felt other people did not understand their problems*.

The analysis of research results for the depersonalization variable suggests that in most cases of the parents included in the study the problem of cynical, objectifying attitude to the child is slightly smaller than emotional exhaustion. For most participants, the scores oscillated around the average results for the group. Most frequently, the parents reported irritation (14 participants); 10 participants stated that *everything got on their nerves and they would gladly run away from all the problems*; 13 participants admitted that *they frequently yelled at their child* and the same number declared that *since the birth of a disabled child they had become less sensitive towards their kin*. Nevertheless, 31 participants declared that *they were not indifferent to what would happen to and with their disabled child*.

The variable of the sense of personal accomplishment measured on the basis of the parents' declarations shows lowering of such self-esteem in nearly half of the participants. Fourteen participants stated that *their efforts in taking care of the child were ineffective* and that *the amount of strength they invested in it was incommensurable with the effects achieved*. They also felt *their knowledge was insufficient to help their child* and *they were not competent in administering therapy, rehabilitating and helping the child*. Eleven participants *felt guilty in relation to their family* because *they believed they neglected its other members*.

The aim of the research was to determine whether the parents faced the problem of burnout and whether the survey questionnaire designed could be treated as a source of information about the risk of emergence of the syndrome. It turns out that the results are ambiguous. Certainly, for a

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group of parents, having a child with disability can become a source of life problems and, consequently, it can lead to a loss of personal resources in accordance with Hobfoll's concept (2006). However, how such a process may proceed, as well as which parents can be particularly vulnerable to burnout, requires further analysis. It can be presumed that inner factors specific to concrete persons can be significant here as well as these persons' positioning within a particular configuration of environmental and social-demographic variables. Significantly influential can be personal managing skills and social support as well as the families' cohesion and adaptability.

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ACHIEVING THE EDUCATION FOR ALL GOALS: THE PLACE OF SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION

Ahon Adaka Terfa

Introduction

The World Education Forum held in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 resolved and adopted the Dakar Framework for Action and declared for Education for All (EFA). This resolution reaffirmed the vision of the World Declaration on Education for All adopted ten years earlier in Jomtien, 1990

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(World Education Forum, 2000).

The EFA declaration implies that early childhood care and education must be expanded and improved; all children irrespective socio-economic status and exceptionality have access to basic education by 2015; special learning needs of learners are ensured; 50% literacy level of adults is achieved by 2015; gender disparity in education is eliminated and achieved by 2015 and quality education and excellence is improved and measured in terms of literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (Dakar Framework of Action, 2000).

The EFA goals are non-discriminatory and are expected to be achieved by all irrespective of condition of exceptionality or status. It is rather surprising that despite this, statistics have indicated that, over 650 million people around the world living with disabilities are excluded from meaningful participation in society. Children with disabilities have to combat blatant educational exclusion. Out of the 75 million children of primary school age who are out of school, one third are children with disabilities; over 90% of children with disabilities in developing countries do not attend school, while the literacy rate for adults with disabilities is as low as 3% – and, in some countries, as low as 1% for women with disabilities (UNESCO, 2009). These figures represent an affront to human dignity and a denial of the right to education of children with disabilities. They stand as major barriers to the attainment of EFA goals and sustainable development and are clearly unacceptable.

The Right-Based Approach to Education of Persons with Disabilities

Meeting the EFA goals particularly for the exceptional persons is a onerous task but must be achieved given the international conventions and commitments. The right-based framework for the attainment of EFA by persons with disabilities include the 1990 Jomtien Convention; the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities as adopted in 1993 focusing on the “equalization of opportunities and participation in all aspects of society” for persons with disabilities (Vernor, 2007). In a similar vein, according to UNESCO (2001) the Salamanca Statement of 1994 states the principles, policy and practice in Special Needs Education and asserts that education for all could not be achieved without including all types of learners in one learning environment.

Inclusive education according to Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (2008) means increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from the cultures, curricula and communities of local schools.

In Nigeria, in response to the Jomtien convention of 1990 and the 1994 Salamanca statement, Universal Basic Education (UBE) was launched in 1999 while its act was passed and signed into law in 2004. The UBE provides a free 9-year compulsory and universal education for all children of school going age (Federal Ministry Education (FME), 1999). Accordingly, Okeke-Oti (2009) opines that universal here implies students with varying abilities should be found in the regular classrooms.

The implication of this legal framework is that diversity of learning needs exist. However, such [Back to Table of Contents](#)

needs must be met for EFA goals to be achieved within the context of inclusive education. It is only through inclusion that access and equal rights to education for all can be assured and guaranteed without which the attainment of EFA goals would be a mirage and is in peril.

Challenges of Inclusion

The implementation of inclusive education has posed the following challenges:

Impairments. Children with diverse conditions of exceptionality may experience some difficulties in accessing instructional environment considering the unfriendly nature of buildings to persons with physical impairment. Ozoji (2005) is of the view that public buildings must be reengineered to allow students access to physical plant and equipment for inclusion to function properly

Socio-economic factors. Socio-economic status of most families in Nigeria is at a subsistence level or below. This state of economic penury no doubt contributes greatly to learning break down or school drop-out (UNESCO, 2003).

Curriculum. For learning needs of learners to be met under inclusive classes, the curriculum must be adapted and modified. It is rather an irony that, regular teachers lack basic pedagogical skills in meeting the learning needs of exceptional children under inclusive settings (Adaka, 2010).

These barriers to inclusion imply a serious threat to the realization of EFA goals. The realization requires that everybody irrespective of status or condition of disability should not be left out; accordingly this requires an effective inclusive education where all children belong.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The march towards the attainment of EFA goals requires that Special Education must play a leading role in ensuring that inclusive education takes a centre stage in our classroom instruction delivery. It is therefore, the contention of the presenter to recommend that inclusive practices should be applicable in our classrooms so as not to exclude anybody from acquisition of meaningful education.

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ATTITUDE OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS TOWARDS TRAINING AND TEACHING OF PERSONS WITH INTELLECTUAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES

Dada, Olubukola C.

Introduction

The purpose of education is to bring up individuals beneficial to society. Bringing up of new generations beneficial to society, and the human resources needed by the country is under the responsibility of the teachers, as being key element of education. Success of an education system is closely interrelated with the qualities of teachers, altogether comprising the key element

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of education. The prerequisite qualities of teachers are described as, being helpful to the learning and creativity of pupils, developing and designing modern learning experiences and assessment methods, serving as a model by keeping up with the times, being aware of the responsibilities of digital age, keeping up with professional developments, and setting an example via lifelong learning and leadership characteristics.

Attitudes of persons with disabilities and its importance has been long recognized (Antonak, 1980). The literature has revealed that one of the most important predictors of successful integrating of students with disabilities in the regular classroom is the attitudes of general education teachers (Coates, 1989; Bacon & Schultz, 1991). Results of studies by Barton (1992) and Wilczenski (1993) indicated that attitudes held by both regular and special educators towards students with disabilities determine the success or the failure of inclusion. If educators hold a positive attitude towards persons with disabilities this allows and encourages the establishment of policies that guaranties the students' rights to be educated in regular classrooms, whereas negative attitude towards persons with disabilities in all aspects limits their opportunities to be integrated in regular classrooms (Altman, 1981; Jamieson, 1984). Most of the studies conducted on the integration of students with disabilities in regular education classrooms found that teachers have negative attitudes (D'Alonzo & Ledon, 1992).

Significance of the Study

It is hoped that this study will help policy makers to know the attitude of pre service teachers towards training and educating the intellectually and developmentally disabled and provide adequate materials for preparing pre service teachers for the task ahead of them.

Research Question

What are the attitude of pre service teachers towards educating and teaching persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities?

Method

Research Design. The survey research design was used in the study.

Participants. The participants were two hundred and fifty three purposively selected pre-service teachers of a teacher training college designated for training teachers for persons with disabilities.

Research Instrument. The instrument used to gather data for the study was designed by the researcher tagged Attitude of Pre service teachers towards educating and teaching Persons with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities.

Procedure for Questionnaire Administration. The researcher, with the assistance of two research assistants, administered and collected the questionnaire in the teacher training college after due permission of the dean of school. A total of two hundred and fifty three questionnaires

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appropriately filled were used for the analysis of data.

Data Analysis. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics of percentage for the research questions and t-test for the hypothesis.

Results

From the result, it was revealed that out of 253 (100%) respondent, the teachers in training agreed that they are confident in their ability to teach student with intellectual and development disabilities were 87.4% From the result, it was revealed that out of 87.4% of the teachers in training agreed that they are confident in their ability to teach student with intellectual and development disabilities 87 while 12.6% did not agree. Most participants (66.8%) agreed that they were comfortable teaching student with intellectual and developmental disabilities, while 42% disagreed. Most (60.8%) agreed that they can adequately handle students with intellectual and developmental disabilities to make strides in adaptive behavior. Most (57.3%) agreed that they do not mind making special physical arrangement in their room to meet educational needs of students with intellectual and developmental disabilities, while 42.7% disagreed. A majority (67.1%) agreed that they can adapt materials and equipment easily to meet the educational needs of students with intellectual and developmental disabilities while 32.9% disagreed. A majority (72.7%) agreed that the emotional tantrum of persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities not withstanding they can teach and train them while 27.3% disagreed with the statement. Most (89.7%) agreed that students with intellectual and developmental disabilities despite their lack of adaptive behavior can gain maximally in educational setting, while 10.3% disagreed with the statement. Most (54.9%) agreed that teaching, managing and training students with intellectual and developmental disabilities is a worthwhile career while 45.1% disagreed.

Discussion

The study revealed that pre-service teachers have been adequately prepared for the task of training and teaching persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities. Most of the pre-service teachers are confident in their ability to teach persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities. It was also discovered that most of the pre-service teachers have high comfort level when teaching, can adequately handle, can adapt materials and equipment when teaching and can teach despite the emotional tantrum of these persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The pre-service teachers also opined that being in the field of education of persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities is out of their own free volition hence their commitment to train and teach persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities.

The study showed that pre-service teachers have been prepared for the task ahead of them through the training they have acquired. Attitudes of pre-service teachers towards students with disabilities and the amount of education and academic preparation they receive in teaching students with disabilities determine the success of inclusion therefore, in order to achieve successful inclusion outcomes, teachers must receive adequate preparation which this study has also revealed hence the stage is set for full inclusion of persons with disabilities.

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Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study there is need for more positive attitude of pre-service teachers. Positive attitude of pre-service teachers should be further reinforced through adequate training to prepare them adequately for the task. Policy makers should also show more commitment and interest in their education by provision of needed materials, equipment and infrastructures needed for their education. Incentives should be given to pre-service teachers of these special populations to encourage them to continue in the field after training in order to make life more meaningful for persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities. The government as a matter of urgency should give the desired attention to the education of the retarded.

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education and rehabilitation of persons with intellectual and developmental disabilities.

PEDAGOGIC STRATEGY FOR ENHANCING LEARNING IN INCLUSIVE SCHOOL SETTINGS: AN ADVOCACY FOR EXPANDED CORE CURRICULUM FOR LEARNERS WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS

J. O. Olukotun

Introduction

The curriculum adopted for use in a contemporary school system requires a periodic review in order for the learners to keep at pace with current trends in the general education system of the country. Under the current educational dispensation in Nigeria, all special needs children and youths were programmed for inclusive education. Inclusive education program not only allows the special needs learners to fully participate in all school curricular but also develop to the fullest, the environment could allow them. It is obvious that the existing curriculum used in ordinary schools in Nigeria today is grossly inadequate for overall development of cognitive and affective domains of the children with special needs. It only meets the basic educational needs of both learners with and without disabilities.

In a recent interview granted some selected heads of schools in Ilorin Metropolis and environs in Kwara State of Nigeria, it was obvious that the curricular adopted for learners with disabilities were inadequate. It was surprising to note that many of the head teachers were either ignorant of high incidence disabilities or what to do to assist affected children in their schools.

Existing Curriculum for learners who are Blind and those with Visual Impairment in Pre and Primary Schools

The existing curriculum for the individuals who are blind or have visual impairment in pre-primary and primary classes in inclusive schools in Nigeria incorporates:

- Pre-reading activities
- Daily living activities
- Mathematical/Concepts
- Concepts of Sets
- Braille Reading
- Listening Skills
- Crafts lessons

The Expanded Core Curriculum

The expanded core curriculum covers all affective areas of the children who are blind and those with visual impairment. The curriculum therefore encompasses skills teaching in the following areas that touch all round development of children who are blind and those with visual impairment.

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Compensatory and Functional Academic Skills Including Communication Modes

Compensatory skills are those skills needed by children who are blind and those with visual impairment for them to access all areas of the core curriculum. Functional skills however, refer to those skills that students with multiple disabilities learn that provide them with the opportunity to work, play, socialize and take care of personal needs to the highest level possible.

Compensatory and functional skills include such learning experiences as concept development, spatial understanding study and organizational skills, speaking and listening skills, and adaptation necessary for accessing all areas of the existing core curriculum.

Orientation and Mobility

As part of the expanded core curriculum, orientation and mobility is a vital area of learning. Students need to learn about themselves and their immediate environment. This has to do with awareness of body parts or body imagery and the child's relationship with significant others and objects in the environment.

Special Interaction Skills

Social interaction skills are not learned casually and incidentally by individuals who are blind and those with visual impairment as they are by sighted persons. Social skills must be carefully, consciously, and sequentially taught to students who are blind and those with visual impairment.

Independent Living Skills

This area of the expanded core curriculum is often referred to as "daily living skills". It consists of all the tasks and functions persons perform in accordance with their abilities, in order to lead lives as independently as possible. These curricular needs are varied, as they include skills in personal hygiene, food preparation, money management, time monitoring, organization etc.

Recreation and Leisure Skills

Skills in recreation and leisure are seldom offered as a part of the existing core curriculum. Rather, physical education in the form of team games and athletics are the usual way in which physical fitness needs are met for sighted students. Many of the activities in physical education are excellent and appropriate for visually impaired students. The teaching of recreation and leisure skills to students who are blind and those with visual impairment must be planned and deliberately taught, and should focus on the development of life-long skills.

Career Education

The ultimate goal of rehabilitating the students who are blind and those with visual impairment is to ensure that they are gainfully employed in a remunerative employment and subsequently live an independent, self-sustaining life. It might be self employment or employment in the public or

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private sector. The students who are blind and those with visual impairment need to be guided on career choices and the prospects for each career so desired. They also need to be informed on competitive jobs available at their disposal based on their interests, aptitude and abilities for such various vocations and employment opportunities. One major problem facing the blind and visually impaired is the lack of information about work and jobs that the sighted easily acquire by observation. There is the need however to dwell more on the vocational education of the visually impaired since it was not comprehensive in the existing curriculum.

Technology

Technology is a tool to unlock learning and expand horizons of learners in this world of Science and technology. Most of the media of communication for students who are blind and those with visual impairment have been improved upon. Beside Braille machine which used to be the major medium of communication, computers are now available for their use. Optacon machine of various functions and modes abound. As a result of technological advancement and the importance of technology in the education of the blind students who are blind and those with visual impairment, it is necessary that the existing curriculum be expanded to incorporate the teaching of science and technology to students who are blind and those with visual impairment.

Visual Efficiency Skills

Through the use of thorough, systematic training, most students with remaining functional vision can be taught to better and more efficiently utilize their remaining vision. The responsibility for performing a functional vision assessment, planning appropriate learning activities for effective visual utilization, and instructing students in using their functional vision in effective and efficient ways is clearly an area of the expanded core curriculum.

Implication of Expanded core Curriculum for Learners with Visual Impairments in Nigeria and other Developing Countries

Unless skills such as orientation and mobility, social interaction, and independent living are learned, students with visual impairment are at high risk for lonely, isolated, unproductive lives. Accomplishments and joys such as shopping, dining, attending and participating in recreational activities are a right, not a privilege, for students who are blind and those with visual impairment. Responsibilities such as banking, taking care of health needs and using public and private services are a part of full life for all persons, including those who are blind or have visual impairment. Adoption and implementation of an expanded core curriculum for students who are blind and those with visual impairment including those with additional disabilities will assure students of the opportunity to function well and completely in the general community.

Conclusion

It is obvious from the foregoing discussion that the curriculum used in both special and mainstreamed regular schools are grossly inadequate to cater for all round development of the special needs children. Since inclusive education is now designed for the special needs learners

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under general education in Nigeria, it is required that the existing core curriculum used in ordinary school for the sighted be reviewed to incorporate other skilled areas that affect the cognitive and effective domains of learners with special needs .

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PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS REGARDING THE IMPACT OF CHRONIC HEALTH IMPAIRMENTS ON SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE

Joan Jafthas
Anthony Roberts

South Africa has experienced a vibrancy of political, social and educational changes over the past two decades. The major shift, from *apartheid* to democracy, has resulted in a plethora of policy changes and practices. One of these policy changes has been in the area of education, most particularly, a shift from a segregated system to “the development of a single, inclusive system of education in which all learners will have access to support” (Department of Basic

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Education, 2009, p. 1). The operative word here is *development*; while policies have been written, much needs to be done to change mindsets and practice. Naicker (2009) reflects that “South Africans have realized that the process of transformation is tedious, difficult and complex” (p. 251).

The recent establishment of Inclusive Education Teams (IETs), in the education districts of the Western Cape Education Department (WCED), can be viewed as a further step in the development of an inclusive education system in the Western Cape. One of the reasons for the appointment of IETs is to enhance the capacity of the education system to deliver a more inclusive service to all learners within the system. Another reason for the appointment of IETs is to build the capacity of Special Schools as they venture on their respective journeys to becoming Resource Centers for mainstream and full-service schools. It is the establishment of these IETs that has prompted the present research which attempts to contribute to answering the question: ‘what is the perception of teachers of issues related to inclusive education?’ The particular issue addressed by this paper is *the impact that chronic health impairment has on scholastic performance*.

The research was conducted in two education districts in the Western Cape, South Africa. One district is rurally based while the other is based within a metropolitan area. Probability sampling was used. McMillan and Schumacher (1997) state that,

This type of sampling is conducted to efficiently provide estimates of what is true for a population from a smaller group of subjects (sample). That is, what is described in a sample will also be true, with some degree of error, of the population. When probability sampling is done correctly, a very small percentage of the population can be selected. This saves time and money without sacrificing accuracy. In fact, in most social science and educational research it is both impractical and unnecessary to measure all elements of the population of interest. (p. 165)

Eighty teachers, with equal numbers from each of the two education districts were requested to complete a structured questionnaire on an individual basis. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A requested basic biographical information such as age group, gender, years of teaching experience, and present teaching location (rural or metro). Section B consisted of eight questions related to knowledge of chronic health impairments, interaction with learners with chronic health impairments, referrals to special schools, and performance in mathematics, literacy, behavior and general school work.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to quantify the responses. The following are the majority responses to information requested and questions asked:

31.3% were of the age group 40-50 years. The second largest age group was 50-60 years.

38.8% had 20-30 years of teaching experience.

78.8% were female.

41.3% responded that they were uncertain about their knowledge of chronic health impairments.

48.8% responded that they had, during their years of teaching, had learners with chronic health impairments in their classes.

45% of rurally based teachers responded that learners with chronic health impairments should not be referred to special schools.

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40% of metro-based teachers responded that learners with chronic health impairments should be referred to a special school as soon as there is a place for them.

63.8% responded that mathematics performance is not determined by chronic health impairments.

65% responded that literacy performance is not determined by chronic health impairments.

47.5% responded that behavior is not determined by chronic health impairments.

52.5% responded that performance in general school work is not determined by chronic health impairments.

A general observation appears to reveal that there was a consistent trend in the responses, namely, that mathematics, literacy, general school work and/or behavioral performances are not determined by whether or not a learner has a chronic health impairment. Another observation appears to be that rural teachers are far more reluctant to refer learners to special school than are metro-based teachers. This could be explained by the reality of resource availability in the two geographic areas being discussed: resources, such as special schools are often more available in urban areas. A further observation can be made about the response to the question about 'knowledge of chronic health impairments'. The majority of the teachers in this study responded that they were uncertain about their knowledge of chronic health impairments. Does this response have an impact on the way forward to develop an education system that is inclusive of all learners? These observations, and many others, will be explored and discussed during the International Association of Special Education (IASE) conference in Namibia in July 2011.

In conclusion, this short paper has highlighted some general observations and trends that have emerged from a 'snapshot' of teachers' perceptions of issues related to learners living with chronic health impairments, in two education districts of the Western Cape, South Africa.

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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION OF LEARNERS WITH INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES IN BOTSWANA PRIMARY SCHOOLS: IS IT HAPPENING?

Serefete M. Molosiwa
Boitumelo Mangope

Introduction

Inclusive Education (IE) anchors on human rights, social justice and equity ideals. Through it, segregatory practices are eliminated and students benefit from the socialization and educational processes (Lo, 2007). Therefore, for Botswana to attain inclusive education, total education system reform is mandatory.

Botswana endorsed Inclusive Education implementation at national, regional and international levels (UNESCO, 2000), but local implementation is wanting (Abosi, 2004). Benefitting from IE is guaranteed for all provided appropriated support is availed (Gaad & Khan, 2007) A major flaw in Botswana is overemphasis on physical placement, with limited or no support (Abosi, 2004).

The Government of Botswana made progress in the integration of learners with intellectual disabilities in lieu of IE. However, such practice lacks the crux of inclusive education such as unconditional acceptance. For this study, Inclusive Education means the provision of equal educational and social opportunities to all children in schools irrespective of their differences.

Objectives and Scope of the Study

The purpose of this research is to gain insight into how two primary schools in Botswana with learners with intellectual disabilities implement Inclusive Education. To achieve this, the authors investigated the extent to which teachers facilitate the academic and social inclusiveness of learners with intellectual disabilities. The study intends to give a snapshot into how schools adapt themselves to IE, in spite of existing service provision and curriculum access challenges (Chhabra, Srivastava & Srivastava, 2009).

This study is conducted only in two urban schools in Gaborone. Therefore, the findings may not be generalizable. Methodologically, the study relied on a closed-ended teacher-questionnaire to collect data but fell short of validating teacher-reports. Additionally, convenient sampling of schools was used for data collection.

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Method

This qualitative study focused on the active, meaningful participation and engagement in the learning of learners with intellectual impairments. Schools as units of analysis provided a synoptic representation of how urban general education schools promote inclusive. Snowball sampling was used to select teachers having integrated learners.

A two-section teacher-questionnaire focusing on demographic and inclusive education practices was designed for data collection. Demographic data included years of experience and credentials. Frequencies of use regarding IE practice were determined with Always; Not Always; Never.

Results and Discussion

Twelve females and two male teachers for Standard two to seven participated. Thirteen were general education teachers. Ten of them had a Diploma, three a Certificate and one a Masters in Education. Most ($n = 12$) had five to over 15 years teaching experience. The number of learners with intellectual disabilities was between two and five in each class of 30 to 45 learners.

Classroom instruction. All but one teacher reported that her learners had individualized educational plans. Teachers ($n = 7$) engaged in multi-level planning, and six used different instructional strategies to facilitate Inclusive Education. The teachers ($n = 7$) also used real life experiences. Five out of 14 respondents paced classroom instruction, while nine occasionally paced. Eleven teachers always engaged learners in the same learning activities as their peers, though only half were guided by assessment data to determine learner activities.

Learner engagement. Ten teachers reported addressing learners' weaknesses as a means to assisting them improve, but only a few ($n = 5$) always adapted instructional material. Additionally, nine participants reported working with the resource classroom teacher to enhance learning. Such collaboration is appropriate as they may be lacking in skills and knowledge of addressing diversity.

Social acceptance. Though half the teachers involved the community, teachers generally did not educate parents on diversity, though Rudd (2002) perceives the latter as integral part of successful inclusive education. Teachers ($n = 9$) also reported respect, tolerance, understanding and support amongst the learners, while ten attested to administrator-support. Developing friendships, playing and interacting with others amicably is invaluable (Sirperstein, Glick, & Parker, 2009).

Conclusions and Implications

The need for legally binding statutes on the nature of service provision for learners in inclusive settings and availability of a policy on inclusive education as a guide is long overdue to address the evident inconsistencies in Botswana inclusive education practices.

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IMPLEMENTING RESPONSE TO INTERVENTION (RTI): A MULTIDIMENSIONAL DATA BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATE ALL LEARNERS

Karen Sealander
Jo M. Hendrickson
Catherine Medina
Adam Lockwood

Best practice in teaching suggests that a multidimensional approach to the assessment of learning can play a significant and positive role in data based decision making processes. With increased emphasis on accountability and a move toward assessment based on Response to Intervention (RTI), it is critical that we have a multifaceted and multidimensional approach (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006; Gresham, 2005). Indeed, with the latest reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 2004 how we assess and classify children with disabilities, especially those with learning and behavioral disabilities has undergone renewed attention and change. Specifically, IDEA emphasizes the teaching and learning process as inextricably linked to assessment and it focuses on accountability in the general education curriculum and those students who are experiencing learning difficulties (IDEA, 2004). The IDEA also recognizes the use of the RTI as an alternative to the traditional discrepancy model that has often been referred to as the *wait to fail* model (Bradley, Danielson & Doolittle, 2007; Vaughn & Klingler, 2007). The goal of instruction thus becomes one of improving the achievement for all students while providing preventative and remedial services to those students at risk and those who may have learning or behavioral difficulties (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005).

The core concepts of RTI include 1) the systematic application of scientific, research proven methods--interventions that are delivered in the general education setting as much as possible, 2) continuous monitoring and measurement (data collection) of student progress in the intervention, and 3) the use of the collected data to inform and drive instruction. To do this, educators (e.g., school psychologists, educational diagnosticians, general and special education teachers) must understand and use high quality research-based instruction along with behavioral supports. The use of research based interventions, coupled with data that determine the effectiveness of the intervention, that is, the outcomes, should drive instructional decisions and be the cornerstone of the educational and RTI process (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2005). This accountability process is not situation or population specific, rather when used correctly will transcend cultural differences.

To determine the extent to which the data collection process associated with RTI is valued in the field, the authors of this paper began the inquiry with graduate students who have taken an assessment practicum class at Northern Arizona University. The emphasis of the practicum was the data based decision-making process.

The students in the practicum were required to conduct functional behavioral analyses using an eco-behavioral assessment (EBA) protocol. The EBA is an observational recording system for collecting data on student behavior (i.e., appropriate and inappropriate academic and social

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behaviors) associated with the varying classroom contexts, subject matter, and activities (ecological categories) in an easy to interpret matrix. The EBA used was adapted from the work of Greenwood and Carta (1987) and Gable, Hendrickson, and Sealander (1997).

The practicum students were also required to implement two instructional strategies on skills for which rate and accuracy (fluency) were important (e.g., basic addition, subtraction, multiplication, division facts, sight words, functional signs). A direct daily measurement system was used where 1-minute timings of the skill were administered following instruction, and the number of correct and incorrect responses in the timings were recorded on a semi-log rhythmic chart and used to determine whether or not the instructional strategy was working.

We wanted to know the graduate students' perception of the data collection process as it related to the collection of information, instructional decision making, and communication of that information to the children themselves, teachers, and parents. The graduate students were asked to rate various aspects of the practicum using a 3-point Likert Scale indicating their level of agreement with *very much* (1), *somewhat* (2), or *not at all* (3).

Preliminary results of our inquiry to date found 72% of the practicum students responded with *very much* when asked if they had a better understanding of the role of data collection as a result of the practicum experience. Twenty-one percent responded with *somewhat* and 7% said *not at all*. Sixty-four percent of the practicum students responded with *very much*, indicating that they would continue to use data based decision-making while 29% said *somewhat* and 7% said *not at all*. The same percentages were noted when the students were asked if they were able to more effectively talk about/communicate the data-based decision making process and child outcomes to others.

When asked about the data collection process, specifically the collection of baseline and intervention data, 79% of the students found that the collection of baseline data was very helpful in developing an intervention. The remaining 21% responded that the process was *somewhat* helpful. When asked about the EBA process as it relates to the development of a behavioral intervention plan (BIP), 70% of the students stated that it is a very effective part of the BIP development while 30% said it was *somewhat* effective.

Regarding the collection of fluency data, 64% responded with *very much* when asked if it was helpful to have both rate and accuracy data from baseline through intervention while 36% responded *somewhat*. Finally, when asked if their understanding of the role data plays in decision-making was enhanced based on their practicum experience, 77% responded *very much*. Fifteen percent indicated that the role of data in decision-making was *somewhat* enhanced and 5% said *not at all*. When asked if, based on their practicum experience, data collection was important in making academic and behavioral decisions for students, the vast majority, 92% said *very much* while 8% said *somewhat*.

Implications

Data-based decision-making is a multidimensional process and an effective tool, especially when [Back to Table of Contents](#)

serving students with persistently challenging behavior (Gresham, 2005; Vaughn & Fuchs, 2003). The EBA and fluency assessment approach is viewed by teachers-in-training as helpful for practitioners in anchoring, evaluating, and communicating educational decisions. It is likely that teacher education programs will be most effective if the process of data based decision making is introduced early, and if the student is given ample opportunity to practice the process in real life classrooms (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008). Research studies and practice suggest that data based processes have broad applicability and allow the educator to make informed decisions in various settings and on different tasks, regardless of the student's disability, age, gender, or cultural background.

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MOVING TOWARD INCLUSIVE PRACTICE AT A HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL -MODEL IN MOTION

Iris Drower

Introduction

Inclusion is when students with disabilities receive their entire academic curriculum in the general education program. This is different from mainstreaming, which is when students with disabilities spend a portion of their school day in the general education program and a portion in a separate special education program (Idol, 1997). Both inclusion and mainstreaming are ways to educate students with disabilities in the least Restrictive environment (LRE). Both inclusion and main-streaming are practiced to varying degrees among numerous high schools throughout an Arizona School District as seen in related discussions in Kauffman and Hallahan (1995) on inclusion versus mainstreaming, related research on the social benefits of inclusion (Buysse & Bailey, 1993; Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattmann, 1993), and related research on the academic benefits of inclusion (Hocutt, 1996; Vaughn, Elbaum, & Schumm, 1996).

The literature describing exceptional learners and inclusion, as well as that describing schools highlighted for inclusive learning practices, indicates key criteria essential for implementation of successful inclusion, criteria that cut across all grade levels (Vadasy 2003; Phelps 2003; Bateman 2002). Such criteria includes: 1.) Full commitment to the concept of inclusion by the entire educated community: the school board, the district administration,

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the principals, and the general education and special education teachers; 2.) In-service training for general education teachers; 3.) Collaborative planning and teaching; and 4.) Implementation of research-based, challenging teaching practices for all students.

Without total commitment from the entire educational community, full inclusion will not succeed. Placing students with disabilities in existing classrooms without modifications in the regular education model and without adequate supports or training for the general education teachers does not constitute inclusion.

The primary intent of this proposal is to determine the degree of inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes within one high school setting, how special education services were offered; and the ways in which students with disabilities were supported in the least restrictive environment. The findings include descriptions of how far along this school was with inclusion, the amount of time students spent in general education, the roles of the special education teachers, the rates of student referrals for special education consideration, the attitudes of all staff toward inclusion and toward collaboration, and the skills of the teachers related to the inclusion of special education students. The findings also include descriptions of the impact of inclusion on other students, the performance of all students on a statewide test, and the qualitative responses of educators toward inclusion.

Conclusion

Overall, educators were positive about educating students with disabilities in general education settings. They were conservative about how to best do this, with many of them preferring to have the included students accompanied by a special education teacher or instructional assistant or continuing to have resource room services. Nearly everyone favored using a two teacher approach to help all students, not just the students with disabilities. Most educators reported feeling positive about working collaboratively and felt they had administrative support to offer inclusive education programs.

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ADDRESSING THE SHORTAGE OF PERSONNEL IN LOW-INCIDENCE DISABILITY AREAS THROUGH DISTANCE EDUCATION

Silvia M. Correa-Torres
Robin D. Brewer

Introduction to Distance Education Programs

Educators in Colorado, especially those located in rural areas struggle to provide scientifically-based strategies to students with low-incidence disabilities. Due to the relative isolation of the teachers, they find it difficult to access courses that address the needs of these students. As a response to this issue, the University of Northern Colorado (UNC) has implemented Special Education Master's programs online for the past 10 years.

Making online courses interesting and accessible is a key factor when developing online programs. One study of the effectiveness of online programs found that peer-interactions,

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feedback from instructors, and online course structure affected students' perceptions of online course quality more than other issues (Yang, & Durrington, 2010). At UNC we provide a variety of formats to increase student interactions, use consistent course structure, and ensure instructors provide timely feedback on all assignments.

The results from a comparison study of a face-to-face course and an online course has indicated that when the courses are well developed, the learning outcomes of online students are indecipherable from those in face-to-face courses (Steinweg, Davis, & Thomsom, 2005). At UNC we have found that the completion rates are also comparable between students taking online and face-to-face classes in all of our programs.

Students that decide to enroll in an online program do so for various reasons. Some may live a long distance from any campus and may not have the luxury of moving closer to a university. Some like the convenience of being able to work around their schedule, and others just prefer not to attend face-to-face classes. Students stress that there are specific strategies that they use to ensure success in an online program. These are: planning ahead by getting books and supplies, scheduling time for assignments, contacting instructors early if there are questions, and ensuring their personal technology is in good working order and that they have the skills to complete an online program (Payne & Johnson, 2005).

The switch to online programs was not an easy decision for faculty because not only did they have to learn new technology, but they had to "translate" their courses into online formats as well. Yet for students that are tech-savvy, they have willingly joined online cohorts in a variety of areas. As an example, UNC's program in Blindness and Visual impairments has grown significantly over the past 10 years from a few students to currently more than 60 students enrolled.

Recently we surveyed teachers in rural areas in Colorado to ascertain their interest in participating in an online program for professionals who work with students on the autism spectrum. We had an overwhelming positive response and these professional greatly anticipated the initiation of an online program to work with students on the autism spectrum. With the incidence of students with autism at an all time high of 1:110, the need is apparent.

Online Program in Blindness and Visual impairment

The program in blindness and visual impairments (BVI) is an example of the success of online programs at UNC. A comparison of dates shows that prior to the online program 57% of students that applied to the program matriculated into the program; now 71% matriculate. The students were graduating at a rate of 38% in 7.6 semesters; now 41% of the students graduate in of 6.4 semesters. The withdrawal rate from the program has also decreased from 16% to 10%.

It is believed that the guiding principles of the BVI program have promulgated its success. These include ensuring that the content is delivered using established instructional methodology practices including using universal design, case studies and simulations to apply theory to practice, field practice with real children, frequent feedback on assignments and discussions, and

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rubrics to guide students in completing assignments.

Online Autism Certificate Program

The certificate program for professionals of students with autism is in its infancy. Delivery of instruction includes the components of the B VI program and the content is built on scientifically-based strategies for students with autism. Courses are delivered from the School of Special Education while collaborating with the Speech Language program. Participants engage in a variety of learning opportunities throughout the program which includes four online courses with video-enhanced learning modules, and technology enhanced discussions.

Conclusion

Online programs prepare quality special education teachers in a variety of low incidence specialties. These programs allow learners to remain in their home communities accessing quality programming. Simultaneously, low incidence programs can increase their enrollment.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY REGARDING SPECIAL EDUCATION BETWEEN NIGERIA AND THE UNITED STATES

Michael Eskay

Introduction

The notion of Special education was a Western phenomenon and a concept in Nigerian educational system. However, special education has since then witnessed some tremendous improvements in the last decade despite cultural, social-economic and political constraints (Eskay, 2009, Abang, 1988; Oluigbo, 1986). These improvements began from the provision of Section 8 of the National Policy on Education since 1977 and have provided support mechanisms for children with disabilities. In the United States of America, special education started with series of advocacies, litigations and legislations which resulted in the establishment of PL 94-142 in 1975. The fullest extent of this law has been stretched and utilized to meet the needs of atypical individuals. A recent indication is the promulgation of PL 99-457 which, to a large extent, addresses special education concerns of young children.

However, both Nigeria and the United States have put forth resources to facilitate the provision of services for exceptional individuals in their respective nations. Furthermore, there are still indications of efforts to handle some shortcomings. According to Eskay (2009) & Oluigbo (1990), these shortcomings include: historical backgrounds, cultural beliefs, societal attitudes, teacher training, legal mandates, funding, and advocacy groups. In the United States, there are laws such as PL 94-142 and IDEA 2004 that have been used to acknowledge the unique needs of children with disabilities. Furthermore, the following shortcomings: historical backgrounds, cultural beliefs, societal attitudes, teacher training, legal mandates, funding, and advocacy groups will help address the special education policy in Nigeria and the United States of America .

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**EDUCATING CHILDREN WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS IN NIGERIA: PAST,
PRESENT AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES**

Michael Eskay

The concept of disability has been examined from various cultural perspectives across the continent of Africa and found that in every culture, disability is perceived differently and such perception shapes the kind of services rendered. This chapter is therefore aimed at briefly examining the different conceptual concepts of disability across the African cultures and then mainly focuses on *Educating children with exceptionalities in Nigeria*.

Conceptual Concepts of Disability Across African Cultures

As we grow in our knowledge of the dynamics surrounding the concepts of culture and disability, we began to realize that individual perceptions and language play a vital role in our understanding of who we are as a people and as a culture. According to Wright (1960), "language is not merely an instrument for voicing ideas but that it also plays a role in shaping ideas by guiding the experience of those who use it." Scheer and Groce (1988) point out that when different cultures use positive language to describe individuals with disabilities, the individuals with disability end up integrating well into the society.

Characteristics of Culture and Disability Within the African Cultures

Characteristics and interpretation of those characteristics are dramatically influenced by the culture in which the individual with disability resides; the governmental bureaus responsible for the oversight of programs for the disabled are affected by both the culture and as well as the handicapping condition. Labeling people with disability imposes severe limitations to them from a cultural, social and an economic perspective; this limitation imposed isolates them from the culture and the workplace.

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Culture

Culture can be seen as a “tradition;” a written or oral method of passing cultural heritage from one generation to another. The development of genetic theory viewed culture in a traditional sense as a “kind of gene pool” existing at the level of social symbolism and meaning rather than biology and with ideation rather than material existence (Kroeber, 2001).

Prior to the twentieth century, the term culture was used by elite and powerful groups to utilize existing limitations of others and their related cultures to maintain a status quo. People who were knowledgeable in history, literature, and fine arts were said to possess culture (Gollnick and Chinn 1998) those who did not possess this knowledge were viewed as lacking in culture.

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UNIVERSAL DESIGN FOR LEARNING AND TEACHER EDUCATION: DIVERSIFYING OUR TECHNOLOGY INSTRUCTION THROUGH LEARNING BLOCKS

Elizabeth M. Dalton
Sarah McPherson
Cindy L. Anderson

Introduction

Professional development and pre-service programs to prepare today and tomorrow's teachers must address the highly diverse learning needs of students in the general education classroom. Models for teacher preparation should incorporate a range of content into flexible delivery structures, to address the growing instructional needs. Recent initiatives in general and special education hold promise to address these needs. A current key initiative, universal design for learning (UDL), is particularly relevant. UDL, linked with two other important educational dimensions, namely response to intervention (RtI), and assistive technology (AT), are connected through an online project called Learning Blocks, to expand and diversify models for using technology to meet the instructional needs of all children.

Development of Universal Design for Learning (UDL)

Over the past 35 years the United States of America (USA) has witnessed significant change in its system of education supports. Prior to 1975, little attention was paid to meeting the needs of students with disabilities within general education settings. Most programs for these students were segregated. Following the implementation of Public Law 94-192 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) and amendments in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1997, the education support system grew, from accommodating students' basic educational rights in the least restrictive environment, to current expectations that *all* students will be meaningfully included in the general education curriculum, including students with disabilities (Hitchcock, Meyer, Rose, & Jackson, 2002). The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2002 established standards and accountability for all teachers and all students; IDEA 2004 (and its 2007 revisions) defined the rights of all students, including students with disabilities, to be taught, supported, and assessed in the general education environment. To achieve this goal, the philosophy of education, methods, materials, assessments, underwent a major paradigm shift. More than ten years ago, the Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) first described the conceptual model of UDL (CAST, 1999). Based in brain research and neuroscience (Rose & Strangman, 2007), the UDL framework promotes educational change to address the unique needs of all learners.

UDL Core Principles

Emerging from understanding how the brain learns, CAST identifies three core principles to apply in development and implementation of universally designed learning environments (Rose & Meyer, 2002). The three UDL Core Principles are:

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- (a) Multiple means of representation (in the *recognition* network)
- (b) Multiple means for action and expression (in the *strategic* network)
- (c) Multiple means for engagement (in the *affective* network)

When UDL principles are implemented through the four curriculum design components - goals, methods, materials, and assessments - the potential for achieving truly accessible learning environments for all students expands (CAST, 2011). Integrated use of UDL in teaching and learning sustains the gains achieved by PL 94-192, IDEA, and No Child Left Behind.

UDL facilitates students attaining learning goals even though they may have wide differences in functional abilities (i.e. seeing, hearing, moving, reading, writing, attending, organizing, engaging, remembering, and understanding English), through proactive design eliminating the need to adapt the curriculum repeatedly to meet special learning needs (Hitchcock, 2001; Orkwis & McLean, 1998). While the implementation of UDL does not *require* technology, strategic and appropriate use of educational and assistive technologies (ET/AT) can further impact the effectiveness of UDL for many students and teachers (Rose, Hasselbring, Stahl, & Zabala, 2005).

RtI, is another education change strategy, that contributes significantly to supporting the diverse needs of students in general education in a UDL environment (Basham, et al, 2010; James, 2004). RtI systematically and universally assesses the progress of all learners to ensure that those with persistent difficulties are identified and receive appropriate support for learning. To address these major change initiatives in education, it is critical that existing teacher preparation programs support diversity, flexibility and choice in their curriculum with instruction in concepts of UDL, ET/AT and RtI. Hence, these concepts serve as current basic content of the Learning Blocks for teacher preparation, delivered on-line or by traditional methods.

Learning Blocks: Introduction and Outline

Learning Blocks are a collection of independent instructional modules designed to address UDL, RtI, and technology models relevant in teacher preparation programs. The Learning Blocks modules provide examples of instruction using UDL, RtI, and technology to support diversifying instruction in the general education classroom. Each Learning Block is aligned with Common Core State Standards (NGA Center and CCSSO, 2010).

Learning Blocks are designed for specific topics in each major content area and are intended to be mixed-and-matched according to the needs and interests of instructors for pre-service or graduate students, or for professional developers and their participants. The components of each Learning Block include title, description and rationale, measurable learning objectives and assessments, applied learning activities, technologies for multiple approaches to teaching and learning according to principles of UDL, and classroom implementation strategies. Each block indicates the predicted number of hours required to complete the module. The Learning Blocks offer a flexible and responsive alternative resource for preparing teachers for today's and tomorrow's diverse instructional challenges in the 21st century classroom.

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A TEACHER FROM BOTSWANA AND AN ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION: LEARNING ABOUT INCLUSION FROM EACH OTHER

Janine Kane
Neo Mafunye

Background on Special Education in Botswana

Special Education is a relatively new field in the education system of Botswana; it became part of the school curriculum in 1994 when a revised education policy was formulated. Before then, the National Policy on Education of 1977 said very little about the education of learners with special needs except to state that they, too, had a right to education like children without disabilities (Mukhopadhyay, 2009). At that time, any form of disability was shrouded in cultural beliefs, e.g., attributing it to witchcraft and other supernatural forces. The Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) of 1994 alludes to the fact that Special Education has been making little progress over the years. Article 11.1 in the RNPE of 1994 stated:

Although RNPE 1994 tried to fill in the gaps that were eminent in the 1977 policy, it has come under criticism for not being able to provide a comprehensive understanding of conceptual issues of inclusive practices. Furthermore, it remains vague on how the policy will be implemented (Mukhopadhyay, 2009).

Inclusion in Botswana

Botswana has seen slow progress in implementing inclusive education since the development of [Back to Table of Contents](#)

the RNPE of 1994. There are continuing efforts to include these learners in mainstream classrooms at all levels of education; however, in Botswana's context, inclusion may also translate to placing learners with specific special educational needs in units within the ordinary school environment. Some of these special schools are designed only for a specific disability, while others are remnants of non-governmental institutions which were established during the post-independence era by missionary churches (Mukhopadhyay, 2009).

Two of the major challenges facing inclusion in Botswana are the negative attitude of general education teachers toward inclusion and the lack of trained personnel and resources to aid learning. Faced with learners with special needs as well as the "typical" students, the regular teacher may be exasperated by the task of designing instruction to suit the needs of all children and doing so with few resources. Chhabra, Srivastava and Srivastava (2010) studied the feelings and concerns of teachers toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in the general classroom. The findings indicated that teachers in Botswana harbour negative attitudes with some concern about inclusive education and fear working with learners with disabilities in their classrooms. Teachers also felt ill-equipped to work with learners with disabilities; they believe that inclusion could lead to lower academic standards.

What Neo Learned about Inclusion in the United States (US)

Neo believes the US is far more advanced than Botswana in issues of special education. Each student who receives special education services in the US has an individualized education program (IEP). In Botswana, the IEP is not a legally binding document. In fact, very few learners, if at all, have an IEP. Comprehensive legislation (e.g., Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, IDEA; and No Child Left Behind, NCLB) exists in the US and there are various services available to parents and children with disabilities, including transition planning that allows the students to get settled within the school environment and later, into the world of work.

Studying in the US exposed Neo to countless ways in which learners who have special needs are included in both the home environment and academic circles. Neo found benefit in one day-long field experience, where parents and guardians learned about resources available to the children with disabilities and their families. Other noteworthy experiences included the opportunity to meet Nate, a young man who presented information about his life and how he learned to type to communicate. Neo also watched Micah, a young man with cognitive impairment, in his touching video; in elementary school, he received special education services but he expressed a desire to join his friends who went to the general education classroom, in using the "other door;" however, he was required to use a different door to get to the special education room for his classes. Micah's was one of the interesting stories Neo liked about the issue of inclusion that took into consideration a student's own feelings about his/her placement.

With this rich exposure and experiences, Neo would like to foster change in Botswana, one step at a time. Alternative assessment is an example of the issues of inclusive education that are not enforced in Botswana. Neo hopes to collaborate with her US professors in order to share ideas and initiatives towards improving the situation of learners with disabilities in Botswana.

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Teaching Neo: The Professor's Experiences

International students had not registered for Janine's courses, *Partnerships with Families and Career Development and Transition*. The two courses Neo completed included students who were studying to be teachers at all grade levels, from prekindergarten to 12th grade. Prior to Neo's arrival, Janine's experience teaching international students was limited to one student from Columbia and two students from Nepal, all had attended the College full-time for at least one year – none had registered for a course she taught that was required for licensure in special education. Neo was an exchange student for one semester only.

Janine found Neo to be an intelligent, respectful, and eager student who graciously, patiently, and professionally responded to her questions. In addition, Neo eagerly participated in class, although she was typically rather reserved. She seemed to soak up every word uttered by her classroom colleagues. One of the most important reminders of Neo's presence for Janine was that all students who are perceived to be different (e.g., different ethnicity, race, culture, etc.) need to be included in the general education classroom, not only those who had been diagnosed with a disability. Everyone in the classroom community gained insights about Neo's culture. Neo's assignments illustrated her desire to incorporate what she learned while in the US into her future teaching in Botswana. She expressed a strong interest in improving the educational opportunities that students with disabilities have in Botswana.

Methodology

During Neo's semester in the United States, Janine retained copies of Neo's completed assignments for the *Partnerships with Families and Career Development and Transitions* courses. In preparing to write the autoethnographic piece, Neo reviewed her assignments. For this project, Janine reread and analyzed the information included in Neo's written work for the classes completed in the United States, in addition to Neo's written narrative for this paper.

Conclusion

Looking back on the semester when Neo was studying in the United States, Janine would have made additional efforts to take Neo to schools in rural areas within a 50 mile radius of the campus. Seeing how students with disabilities are included in a variety of schools, not just those in a small city, and having an opportunity to speak with students, teachers, and administrators about inclusive practice in this area of the US would likely have deepened her understanding. Janine desires to further collaborate with Neo and her professors and other students studying to be teachers in Botswana.

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DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS AND DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION FOR STUDENTS WITH AUTISM AND FOR THOSE WITH TRAUMATIC BRIAN INJURY

A. Sandy Parsons

The incidence of Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD) is increasing and is now considered the leading cause of childhood developmental disorders (Chez, 2008). Also, the rate of Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) especially in adolescents is increasing dramatically (Sullivan, 2008). Therefore the need for good practical diagnostic methods for education interventions is crucial, internationally. Education interventions for both the ASD and TBI populations are overlapping in recommended practices. This brief paper will highlight important key factors in the planning of education intervention based upon individual needs for both groups.

Characteristics of Children with ASD and TBI:

In a dissertation research study based upon archival data by Sanders (2009), she compared parents' ratings of their children with the diagnosis of Higher Functioning Autism (HFA) or Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) on the BASC2, Behavior Assessment System for Children, Second Edition (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004). Four groups were studied including those diagnosed

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with HFA, TBI, ADHD and a control group. The effects of diagnostic category on the dependent variables of the subscales of behavior on the BASC-2 (Reynolds & Kamphaus, 2004) were significant and included those subscales of Hyperactivity, Aggression, Conduct, Anxiety, Depression, Somatization, Adaptability, Social Skills, Leadership, Activities of Daily Living, Functional Communication, and Attention Problems. More specifically, across the full age span studied, ages six – 21, children with HFA had significantly higher Depression and Attention Problem scores, and significantly lower scores on the Adaptability, Social Skills, Leadership, Activities of Daily Living, and Functional Communication scales than those children diagnosed with TBI (Sanders, 2009, p. 108). In her summary however, even given these differences, one of her final conclusions stated: “Thus, behavioral symptoms do not seem to be as diagnosis-specific as diagnostic categories would imply that they are” (Sanders, 2009, p. 117). The groups of children may therefore be assisted with similar behavioral and education interventions.

Differentiated Instruction

Education intervention programs should be based upon individual student need profiles. Each child, regardless of diagnostic category, presents with both similar and dissimilar education needs. The need for an Individualized Education Program (IEP) approach to instruction is therefore paramount.

Many approaches to differentiating instruction to meet individual learning needs are evident and well researched in the literature. These include: Positive Behavior Supports, Structured teaching, Social Stories™, Comic Strip Conversations™, Floortime Activities, Pivotal Response Training, Person Centered Planning, Picture Communication Symbols (PCS) among many others (Copland, 2010; Heflin & Alaimo, 2007; Notbom & Zysk, 2010). The key to providing instruction that addresses the specific needs of each child lies in the transdisciplinary teaming for assessment and teaching through planned and researched based interventions by a group of informed and talented teachers, parents and related service professionals.

A common need across all children in both “categories” is the need for effective communication of needs wants and desires. A child who cannot communicate well, regardless of the cause be it Autism or Traumatic Brain Injury can easily become “a simmering cauldron of frustration and despair” (Notbom & Zysk, 2010, p. xxii). The provision of related services in the form of Speech Therapy is essential. The full assessment of children’s needs for assistive technologies (AT) to facilitate communication skills and the attainment of education goals is also essential. Only after individual goals are written should the types of AT a child needs be considered.

The use of Picture Communication Symbols (PCS) is of great value including the creation of communication systems for daily schedules, worksheet, and communication boards; PCS also provides a low tech communication solution (Heflin & Alaimo, 2007). Through the system of Picture Exchange Communication Symbols (PECS) children can learn to initiate communication and exert more control over their environments (Bondy, & Frost, (1995). PECS has been researched extensively for “its effectiveness for training spontaneous initiation of speech encouraging the acquisition of spoken language, decreasing problem behaviors and increasing

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communicative behaviors in play and academic settings” (Heflin & Alaimo, 2007 p. 253). Mayer Johnson’s wonderful software program Boardmaker™ provides wonderful libraries of PCS in color, black and white, line and more detailed symbols for the creation of PECS and other teaching materials.

Summary and Conclusions

Differentiated instruction for children with Autism and or Traumatic Brain Injury is essential to their success in negotiating the education system. A variety of very helpful techniques for the design of instruction have been widely researched. In the final analysis, the approaches to instruction should address the unique needs of each child without over emphasis on the diagnostic category of their clinical diagnosis. The cross application of many methods and the collaborative planning and implementation of instruction by the entire collaborative team including parents, teachers, related services personnel, general education teachers and paraprofessionals is required. All children can learn and succeed in such an education setting.

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PERSONNEL SHORTAGES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION: CHALLENGES AND SUCCESS STORIES

Karen L. Kelly
Jeni Arndt
Monique Beange
Lindi Chapman
Mollie Koshak

The supply and demand of special education teachers and related service providers has been a cause for concern among school administrators and state education officials in the United States of America (USA) and internationally for several decades (Thomas, 2007; USDOL, 2009). It appears that there are some universal challenges specific to personnel shortages around the world, as well as some solutions and promising practices that have been found to be effective in addressing this complex profession. The purpose of this paper is to provide a summary of responses to the challenges of personnel shortages in special education in the USA and in several specific regions of the world, including the state of Qatar, a small country in the Arabian Gulf engaged in a national reform effort to build a world class educational system; and in Australia, whose regions have promoted the development of special education services throughout their continent and in neighboring countries across the southern hemisphere. It is important to note that Qatar utilizes the expertise of international consultants from both the USA and Australia to facilitate their policy development and several of the authors of this paper have shared their expertise and experiences with the Education Institute of the Supreme Education Council (www.sec.gov.qa) as it moves forward in implementing educational systems nationwide.

According to the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality (NCCTQ, 2006), the need for qualified special education teachers will continue to rise faster than all other types of teaching personnel through 2014. A review of the literature indicates that special education personnel shortages continue to exist around the globe in spite of strategic and focused recruitment and retention initiatives (Billingley, 2003). In the USA, numerous studies over the years have attributed teacher preparation, attrition, recruitment and retention challenges to negative factors such as increases in caseload, lack of collaboration between general education and special education, insufficient time to complete mandated paperwork, discipline problems, lack of materials, and lack of administrative support. In Australia, the ageing population and inadequate pre-service teacher training programs are key factors in the special education personnel crisis; and in Qatar the development of comprehensive policies at the national level has taken enormous time and effort from a range of stakeholders in schools where educational opportunities are still in the early stages of implementation and yet, under intense government and public pressure,

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have been increasing exponentially.

The National Coalition for Personnel Shortages on Special Education and Related Services notes that in addition to the shortage of professionals to fill available positions (supply and demand) there also exists a shortage of national, state and local funding for new positions to meet the growing demand for services. Other factors that contribute to the shortage dilemma include: insufficient funding for incentive programs; limited capacity of existing training programs to meet the demand for new professionals due to a shortage of qualified faculty; limited capacity of Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) to provide preparation opportunities in special education due to geographical limitations; limited supply of qualified professionals willing to work with specific populations; credentialing barriers that limit opportunities for re-specialization, or alternative routes to licensure of otherwise qualified personnel. <http://www.specialedshortages.org/advocacy.cfm>

In the State of Qatar, the challenges of preparing, recruiting and retaining special education personnel are embedded into the complexities of national reform efforts. An expansion of the teaching workforce has been underway in Qatar and the neighboring Arab States for the last decade, due to the serious shortages of trained teachers, as evidenced by the regional average among the Gulf States of 40:1 pupil/teacher ratio in 2005 (UNESCO, 2008). According to educational policy documents (Chapman, personal communication, 2011) the key issues associated with Special Education personnel shortages in Qatar are only just beginning to surface, amid the “incremental nature of the reform” and the need to be ever mindful of the cultural context. Perhaps most challenging is the paucity of a trained educational workforce and an increasing lack of coordination between training institutions to recognize the requisite public school employment criteria.

Special Education personnel shortages in Australia have reached “an impending crisis” in some regions (Thomas, 2007, 2009). This may be due in part to what the Labor Economics Office refers to as an increasing prevalence of children with moderate to severe disabilities and improved diagnosis of autism and mental health problems (DEEWR, 2007). Reports from the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) in 2007 provide a range of supply and demand information for all of the regions of Australia, ranging from “Recruitment Difficulty” in New South Wales and Western Australia to a balanced labor market and “No Shortage” in Victoria, Australian Capital Territory (ACT) and South Australia to “Shortage” in Queensland, Tasmania, and the Northern Territory. The regions reporting recruitment difficulties cited lack of clearly defined educational pathways for special education teacher training and an increase in the need for teachers and related service providers with specialized training and qualifications.

In spite of the growing concerns regarding preparing suitably qualified personnel in a timely manner, Thomas (2009) cautions against initiating the US practice of employing “emergency certified special education personnel” citing the alarming results of studies of certified and non-certified staff perceptions of their knowledge and skills. Non-certified teachers tend to rate themselves as highly as certified teachers, indicating they may not be fully aware of their strengths and weaknesses (Nougaret, Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 2005).

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Numerous initiatives have developed to respond to the challenges of personnel shortages in special education in the USA, Qatar and Australia. In the USA there are state-funded strategies that appear to support recruitment and retention, including partnerships between state agencies and universities, additional stipends for wrap-around services, cost-free professional development and release time for high performance (Muller, 2010). These initiatives also blend government-funded projects for recruitment and retention, alternative certification programs, including distance education, intern and mentorship opportunities and waivers to state certification requirements.

In October, 2008, the federally-funded National Center to Improve Recruitment and Retention of Qualified Personnel for Children with Disabilities (Personnel Improvement Center) <http://www.personnelcenter.org/index.cfm> was initiated through a cooperative agreement between the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) and the US Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP). The mission of the Personnel Center is to increase the nation's capacity to recruit, prepare and retain diverse highly qualified special educators, early intervention and related service providers, including paraprofessionals.

Increased access to teacher preparation programs via alternative delivery methods has seen tremendous growth in the USA and internationally. In the state of Colorado alone there are five state-approved alternative programs offering Special Education Generalist (K-12) programs that serve both urban and rural school districts. Other alternative examples include online educator preparation programs, which provide unlimited access to a wide range of professional programs for thousands of candidates, regardless of geographic areas.

Monetary incentives or grants offered by government agencies or institutions of higher education have been found to assist districts in recruitment and retention of specialized instructional support personnel. Loan forgiveness in the USA is available for individuals who choose employment in rural, urban or regions designated as "hard to fill" (e.g. Head Start programs) thereby ensuring that students have access to services from qualified personnel.

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) has established a mentoring program in the USA that provides personalized support online at a national level and then leveraging the mentees to be mentors later. Special education personnel who are supported by specially trained individuals are more likely to stay in the profession (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008). The quality of the mentoring needs to be carefully monitored as the findings of a recent USA study reported that one-third of early career special educators did not find the mentoring provided to them to be helpful (Billingsley, Carlson & Klein, 2004).

The challenges associated with balancing the supply and demand for special education personnel are many, and have been found to be somewhat universal in nature, as illustrated by the personnel shortages identified in the USA, Australia and even in the developing Arab country of Qatar. Specific regional needs can be satisfied with the continued development of rigorous training, professional development opportunities and supportive mentoring programs, all of which have been found to reduce attrition in special education and the related services, especially

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in the early years of employment in the schools.

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TWO MODELS OF COLLABORATIVE SCHOOL CONSULTING TO HELP TEACHERS TO INTEGRATE EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOR DISORDER STUDENTS IN THEIR GROUPS: INDIVIDUAL CONSULTING VERSUS GROUP SUPPORT

Caroline Couture
Line Massé

Inclusive education is a highly recommended practice for pupils with emotional behavior disorder (EBD) (Sale & Carey, 1995). In Quebec, as it is in other countries, inclusive practices to maintain pupils in least restrictive settings are advocated by school authorities. However, pupils with EBD present a particular challenge to their peers and teachers, and have important needs in instruction and education areas. Studies show that successful integration of EBD students is largely influenced by the practices used by teachers and especially their ability to differentiate their teaching according to student needs (Soodak, Podell, & Lehman, 1998).

However, teachers are not always well prepared to receive these pupils and adapt their practices to their needs. Studies suggest there is a significant gap between practices considered best for EBD students and those actually used by teachers in schools. This can be attributed to the lack of teacher knowledge about best practices and the lack of support provided to them in implementing effective strategies. To reduce difficult situations and facilitate the integration of EBD students in regular classes, experts in education think that to support teachers and supply them with appropriate tools are promising strategies (Pavri & Luftig, 2000).

Consultation programs thus seem to be a promising strategy to support teachers who have to adapt their teaching to the specific needs of these pupils. According to Williams (2000), the collaborative approach of consulting brings about the most enduring changes in teachers'

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practices because responsibility of the problem is shared equally between them and the consultant, thus better enabling teachers to solve problems they encounter. Lafortune and Daudelin (2001) agree with this view and state that training of teachers is better to focus on developing skills to solve problems, communicate with peers and transform the environment so they can have greater control over their work environment and thus develop a greater sense of security.

Even if the collaborative model in a socio-constructivism perspective was shown to be the best way to answer teachers' needs (Arpin & Capra, 2008), our literature review revealed that this model may be implemented following different modes. Two of them seemed particularly relevant to satisfy teachers' needs: individual and small group consultations. The first model involves that the teacher meets individually with the consultant on a number of occasions. At each meeting, the consultant guides the teacher in using a problem solving approach focused on a particular problem that he faces with an EBD student (Bergan & Kratochwill, 1990). The advantage of such model is the ability it gives to the consultant-teacher duo to thoroughly analyze a problematic situation using a functional assessment. One or more cases can be analyzed per encounter, as deemed necessary. The second model, which has certain advantages in financial terms, is the establishment of support groups. Their main goal is to enable participating teachers to recapitulate on their respective practices, to measure the effectiveness of recently experienced approaches and practices and to explore future avenues for intervention. These groups help support and promote learning among teachers even if they allow less time for each teacher to analyze his own situation during the meeting.

Past research has shown advantages and disadvantages for both modalities but they had never been compared in a similar context, with similar frameworks. We conducted our research project with the objective to compare both modalities of collaborative consultation and to develop a program proposing standardized material and a framework that could either be used in an individual or small group process. The objectives of the program are: to help teachers 1) understand the nature of the difficulties encountered by EBD students, 2) become aware of their current practices and their effectiveness, 3) identify the interventions that they should change and those they should keep, 4) accompany them in a problem-solving approach, 5) offer them new tools and intervention strategies deemed effective for specific problems encountered in their class and 6) support them in the implementation of chosen solutions. Whatever the modality, contents addressed in the program are the same and are inspired by empirical studies illustrating effective interventions to improve EBD student behavior in class, particularly behavioral and cognitive behavioral approaches. This knowledge is in fact the toolbox that consultants use throughout their support meetings with teachers. In summary, the professionals in charge of the two modalities of support (individual or small group process) get the same toolbox, but don't propose it in the same way to teachers.

The program offers a problem solving procedure and an in-depth functional assessment that allows understanding the functional aspect of a behavior by analyzing the contingencies that control it (i.e. the antecedents and consequences). Through the consultation model, the consultant is able to provide support for each step in the problem solving process, provide feedback and ensure that teachers feel less isolated. Throughout the meetings, various topics are discussed with

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teachers (i.e. building the relationship with the student, compensating deficits – i.e. attention, positive discipline, and strategies for reducing inappropriate behaviors). Emphasis is put on preventing behavior disorders by better classroom management and building positive relationships between teachers and students.

A. Individual Consultations

This model offers individual consultation to teachers consisting in six 75-minute individual meetings. During each meeting, the consultant guides the teacher through a problem solving process regarding a particular behavior issue of a student in his class or of a problematic classroom situation presenting a challenge for him. The consultant will first help the teacher define precisely the problematic situation. This process leads them to perform a functional assessment of the problematic behavior. They then suggest various possible interventions and evaluate their potential in succeeding. Once best interventions are identified, the consultant draws attention to the teacher on the various aspects that are important in promoting the success of the action plan. Over the following weeks, the teacher puts into practice the intervention selected in his class. If necessary, he has the possibility to communicate by email with the consultant between meetings to get support on time. At the next meeting, they analyze evaluate results obtained and start the problem solving process for the same or any other problematic situation.

B. Small Group Consultation

Small groups, consisting of up to 6 teachers, are animated by a consultant. These groups play a role of support and supervision for participants, taking into account the genuine and immediate needs of teachers. The intended purpose of these groups is to get teachers to actively undertake changes in their practices, by providing specific action plans for targeted students, and by regularly evaluating the effectiveness of their interventions. At each meeting, after a return on positive and negative experiences of teachers in recent weeks in connection with themes discussed, a collective problem-solving activity takes place to analyze one or more problems presented by the teachers. Training modules are short presentations on selected topics based on themes expressed by participants. Six group sessions lasting 2 hours are planned throughout the school year. Between each meeting, participants can communicate by email with the group leader for individual consultation.

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IMPACT OF TWO MODELS TO HELP TEACHERS INTEGRATE STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOR DISORDERS IN THEIR GROUPS: INDIVIDUAL CONSULTING VERSUS GROUP SUPPORT

Line Massé
Caroline Couture

Integrating emotional behavior disorder (EBD) students is a challenging task for teachers, particularly at intermediate or high school levels. Students' misbehavior negatively affects teachers', well-being and confidence, and also student's learning time and academic achievement (Poulou & Norwich, 2000). It appears that difficulty establishing and maintaining effective classroom behavior management is one of the main reasons teachers leave the profession and a significant factor in student disengagement (Bibou-Nakou, Stogiannidou, & Kiosseoglou, 1999; Beaman & Wheldall, 2000). Research suggests that lack of behaviour training and support for understanding disruptive behaviours and choosing best strategies to deal with them may lead

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teachers to use more negative strategies, like reprimands, punishments, treats, and expulsion instead of proactive or positive strategies like effective command or praise (Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008; Morrison & D’Incau, 2000). However, the use of predominantly reactive management strategies has a significant relationship with elevated teacher stress and decreased student on-task behaviour (Clunies-Ross *et al.*, 2008).

This research evaluates the impact of two collaborative school consulting models for teachers which aim is to facilitate integration of EBD students in mainstream classes: individual consultation and small group consultation. The objectives of the two models are the following: (1) to help teachers better understand the nature of disruptive behaviors and underlying students needs, (2) to help teachers complete a functional assessment of inappropriate behaviors, (3) to choose an appropriate action plan that focuses on proactive and positive strategies, (4) to support the implementation of the plan, and (5) to build a better relationship between teachers and students. The two models are based on behavioral and cognitive behavioral approaches as well as attachment theory, and stress problem solving. The school consultant may be a resource teacher, a psychologist, or a specialist in behavior management (called psychoeducator in Quebec). (For more detailed information on the two models, see Couture & Massé in these conference proceedings.) A quasi-experimental research design was used, combined with a qualitative assessment. Here we present the qualitative assessment results of the first year of the project.

Method

Sixty one teachers participated in the project allocated in two treatment groups (individual consultation, $n = 20$; small group consultation, $n = 22$), and one comparison group ($n = 19$). The number of meetings in the experimental group varied from 5 to 6 throughout the school year. At the end of the school year, semi-structured interviews of approximately 45 minutes were conducted with all the teachers participating in treatment groups ($n = 42$; working experience: $M = 11.32$ years, $SD = 7.55$; 27 women and 15 men), resource persons accompanying individuals or groups ($n = 11$) and school managers ($n = 8$).

A systematic approach was used for qualitative data analysis, and NVivo work environment was used in order to facilitate content analysis. We used a mixed categorization system: categories emerged from the systematic reading of data, and certain categories were established based on research aims.

Results

All actors (teachers, school consultant, managers) recognized the utility of the two models, but for different reasons. All the teachers reported that they gained a better understanding of disruptive behaviors and that they would now take more time in analyzing problematic situations and understanding the meaning of these behaviors. They also added that they subsequently intervened in a proactive and positive manner, and not only in a reactive manner. All stressed the importance of building a positive relationship with EBD students and using positive reinforcement, not only to the benefit of EBD students but to that of the whole class. Although teachers participating in the individual consultation model appreciate the help received, most of

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them would have preferred participating in the group model 1) in order to exchange with other teachers and profit from their experience 2) for the opportunity to discuss a greater variety of behavior problems and 3) to benefit from varied treatment solutions. Only two teachers in the group model would have preferred to be in the individual model because of the complexity of the problematic situations encountered (they would have appreciated to have more time to analyze the situation in depth) or the intensity of their own classroom management problems (one teacher reported to be reluctant to speak freely of their problems in front of other teachers experiencing less difficulties). All the teachers participating in the group models appreciated the richness of the discussions, the possibility to compare themselves with other teachers, and the optimistic view that emerged from the group problem solving process (« There is always a solution »). Only four teachers reported not appreciating when the meetings focused on the personal problems of teachers instead of the problem solving of student's behavior problems. All types of accompanying resource persons were appreciated by the teachers, but for different reasons. The resource teachers were appreciated because teachers felt that they had a better understanding of classroom reality from previous teaching experience. The other resource persons (psychologist or "psychoeducator") were appreciated for their different point of views on the situation. All of the accompanying resource persons found that the project was especially helpful in helping teachers understand problematic situations and the function of behaviors. Although the group model needs more organization, all the resource persons and managers preferred this model because they thought that it facilitated the process of change and encouraged teachers to better overcome their resistance to change.

Conclusion

According to preliminary analysis, these two models seem to have positive impacts on teachers, especially on their perceptions of EBD students. Both models have their respective advantages and disadvantages. However, the group model is the one which elicits the most adhesion in all groups of participants.

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**PRACTICING WHAT WE TEACH: A CALL FOR INCREASED COLLABORATIVE
TEACHING BETWEEN GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER
EDUCATION FACULTY**

Tess Reid

Special education teacher education faculty must begin to practice what they teach: Collaborative Teaching. The afore-mentioned need is largely driven by the unprecedented educational reform as outlined in President Barack Obama's Race to the Top Initiative (RTTT) and the previously mandated and adopted No Child Left Behind Act. In both educational reform initiatives, the issue of equal access to high quality instruction taught by highly qualified teachers for certain underperforming K-12 student groups has emerged: Students with disabilities are among the underperforming student groups. Consequently, individual states have begun adopting and enacting legislation that directly links student achievement data to teacher performance (Presidential White House Fact Sheet, 2009). Therefore, it is both timely and prudent to investigate possible factors affecting the ability of students with disabilities to achieve at high levels academically, including factors within or across teacher preparation programs for their teachers: Collaborative teaching of academic content methods and pedagogy in teacher preparation programs is one area of many worthy of further investigation (Bacharach, Washut-Heck & Dahlberg, 2008).

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The need to increase collaborative teaching of academic content methods and pedagogy between general and special education teacher education faculty in teacher preparation programs can be directly linked to the strong emphasis on equal access to high quality instruction taught by highly qualified teachers for students with disabilities (Parker, Goe, Hicks & McCreddie, 2010). This is important because the achievement gap between students with and without disabilities continues to widen in the face of increased educational reforms and funding of the same. Another reason driving the need to increase collaborative teaching of methods and pedagogy in special education teacher preparation programs is because students with disabilities have historically been separated or excluded from access to the general education curriculum, settings with nondisabled peers, and highly qualified teachers with content area expertise. For example, In 2010, the U.S. Department of Education reported that greater than 22 percent of all students with disabilities in the United States attending regular public schools spent from 21 to 60 percent of their instructional school day outside of the general education classroom. Additionally, the same U.S. Department of Education report revealed that greater than 15 percent of all students with disabilities attending regular public schools in the U.S. spent more than 60 percent of their instructional school day outside of the general education classroom; students with average or above average intelligence.

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RESPONSE TO INTERVENTION: CREATING ACCESSIBLE LEARNING EXPERIENCES FOR ALL STUDENTS

Heather Taylor Wizikowski

Response to Intervention is an educational model that includes early intervening services as well as a method of disability identification for elementary school students who are struggling in reading and math (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2009). It is meant to be a meaningful integration of assessment and intervention within a multi-tiered system of instruction with a goal of preventing school failure (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2009). Students who are not achieving at the rate of their peers are identified earlier, interventions become more precise, and learning disability identification is based on specific learning outcome data. There are two specific goals of RTI: early intervening services and learning disability identification.

RTI is a multi-tiered, streamlined intervention model consisting of high-quality, validated instructional practices. Thinking of a pyramid, most schools or districts have between three and five levels of intervention before a special education placement is considered for a student who does not respond to progressively intensive interventions. At the base of the pyramid, Tier 1 is general education instruction. At this level validated, quality instructional programs are presented to every student and universal screening is completed to assure mastery of skills. Careful attention to quality program selection at this level rules out ineffective teaching when seeking a cause for school failure. When a student is not able to meet learning goals, the student is referred for Tier 2 services.

There are two types of Tier 2 interventions for students who have trouble accessing learning at the first tier of instruction. *Standard-protocol* intervention includes using the same research-validated method or program of intervention for every child who is labeled as nonresponsive to general education teaching (Fuchs, Mock, Morgan, & Young, 2003). These interventions make for a standardized approach that is easy to replicate from teacher to teacher or classroom to classroom. A variety of school personnel including teachers, specialists, or paraprofessionals may administer interventions using the standard-protocol approach.

The *problem-solving* model takes a different approach to Tier 2 services. Problem-solving is a four-step process created by teachers when planning Tier 2 services: problem identification, problem analysis, plan implementation, and problem evaluation (Fuchs et al., 2003). Each student is given a personalized plan for remediation and progress is monitored individually. Due to the individualized nature of this model, teachers or education specialists are the only personnel that may plan and administer interventions.

Tier 2 includes finite, 12-week cycles of either small group (3-5 students) or individualized tutoring. During and after these sessions, students are assessed for responsiveness to the intervention program. If a student is found responsive, they are returned to Tier 1 services. A non-responder would then move on to Tier 3 services, many times classified as special education. At the top of the RTI pyramid, Tier 3 (the final level in most RTI programs) is either an assessment for special education services, or special education services with or without a

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learning disability (LD) diagnosis, depending on the program policy of the school or district (Fuchs et al., 2003). Through strong, quality programs and instruction in the prior two levels, this level would see the fewest number of students needing services.

Fidelity of implementation is key to the success of an RTI program. Much of the literature on RTI and LD expressly describes the necessity of successful RTI programs to have procedural fidelity as a component. To implement a program with fidelity, professionals must: (a) be adequately trained, (b) adhere strictly to the procedures of the program, (c) implement the program with the frequency recommended (i.e. 4 times per week), (d) implement the program for the amount of time recommended (10 weeks, one semester, etc.), and (e) skillfully implement the instructional procedures (<http://www.iriscenter.com>). This practice assures students are being exposed to high-quality instruction during all levels of RTI.

RTI has been shown to be a more uniform, objective approach to identifying students with learning disabilities. Since 1977, students with disabilities in the US have increased from 3.7 million to 5.3 million, even though there has been no dramatic change in public school enrollment numbers (Fuchs et al.2003). There are no transparent causes for this increase in numbers, and much debate has centered on ill-focused identification methods. School leaders and federal and state education agencies have been looking for more consistent and effective methods to identify students who are learning disabled. (Fuchs et al., 2003). Students participating in RTI are currently universally screened, enter intervention tiers sooner, and participate in special education assessments in different, more authentic forms from years past. RTI avoids the “wait to fail” and discrepancy models of special education qualification that have become highly debated in recent years. Qualifying a student for special education services with RTI means continuous progress monitoring, analyzing data trends over time, , and documenting differentiation of instructional methods.

RTI promises a more intensive, data-driven method of both early intervening and learning disabilities identification than traditional education models. Students are able to have diverse academic needs met in a variety of instructional settings using validated, research-based strategies. Academic content in reading and math is accessed using a multi-tiered intervention program that guarantees students with the greatest need have the most intensive interventions. Future research in RTI includes secondary level (high school) implementation, as well as implications for academic subjects other than math and reading.

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**DATA-BASED DECISION MAKING TO PROVIDE EARLY INTERVENTIONS FOR
EARLY DIVERSE READERS IN THE CONTEXT OF A SCHOOL PARTNERSHIP**

Ann McCaw

Introduction to the Study

Selecting and implementing evidence-based interventions within Response to Intervention models has taken on greater emphasis in United States K-12 school systems. The selection of teaching strategies used to supplement instruction cannot be based on personal preference. Rather, teaching methods and strategies should be research-based and effective as demonstrated by increased student performance.

The Response to Intervention model should be a "preventative and instructional enterprise" (Vellutino, 2010, p. 21). If we are to focus on instruction, then teacher expertise becomes an inherently critical factor to improve student performance and children with the greatest difficulty should have teachers with the greatest expertise (Vellutino, 2010). This is an important consideration for the field of special education and for those responsible for teacher preparation. Pre-service teachers in special education are likely to be co-teaching with their general education colleagues or assisting classroom teachers in planning instructional interventions for diverse readers. This is a complex process which includes selecting evidence-based teaching interventions, implementing the interventions with fidelity to the process and modifying instruction based on student performance.

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This study is about the development of pre-service teacher expertise using a structured coaching model within the context of a school partnership. The research base for the selection of the coaching model comes from the meta-analysis of studies on how teachers learn which was conducted in New Zealand (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar & Fung, 2007). The findings show that teachers learn by building knowledge related to practice followed by reflection on practice. Professional learning is enhanced through engaging expert teachers to model and coach accompanied by interaction with colleagues dedicated to the improvement of practice. Using this research as a guide for this study, the development of pre-service teacher expertise was assisted through expert teachers modeling, coaching and providing feedback to learners. Pre-service teachers were engaged in reflection dedicated to the improvement of student performance.

Features of the Study

Developing a Partnership

Developing a school partnership was accomplished by establishing a leadership team composed of teachers who were commonly recognized for their level of expertise in providing effective instruction for improving reading performance. They were invited periodically throughout the year to discuss the development of pre-service teacher expertise with professors in education. Establishing this connection promoted their involvement in the development of after-school programming which would involve pre-service teachers in planning tutoring sessions with the benefit of the expert teacher modeling instruction and coaching.

Evidence-Based Teaching Intervention

A feature of the instruction was to select and use evidence-based teaching interventions which are known to provide high quality instruction for diverse readers (Vaughn & Fuchs, 2003). These interventions have been tested and usually follow specific procedures which should be implemented with fidelity. Scaffolding is one of those teaching interventions that is effective with diverse learners (Jones, 2010). In this study, scaffolding is a teaching intervention that utilizes prompts, encourages modeling of reading strategies and connects reading to writing.

Structure of the Lesson and Coaching

Lessons are structured to include repeated readings with leveled literacy books, word study related to errors made on running records, reading strategies to unlock challenging words in new book reading and structured reading-writing practice. Assessment using a running record provided direct and frequent measures of growth. Coaching in this study began by expert teachers using student data to guide the selection of appropriate interventions. They demonstrated the use of instructional scaffolding to nurture the use of reading strategies and to provide short intense work on analyzing words. When pre-service teachers began teaching, they were able to ask the expert teacher to teach a part of the lesson or to coach them while they were teaching. Rubrics were also developed to identify essential features of the interventions to guide the pre-service teachers and to give more precise feedback after observations.

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Findings and Recommendations

The purpose of the study was to provide pre-service teachers an opportunity to increase expertise in making data-based teaching decisions and implementing interventions for diverse readers in first grade. The school partnership offered win-win opportunities for community schools and for pre-service teachers. Assisting reluctant readers twice a week for forty minutes brought enough consistency to further enhance student reading growth and provided a more continuous review of student performance for pre-service teachers.

The features of the program which were specifically selected to enhance pre-service teachers' growth in designing and delivering evidence-based instruction brought varying results on a survey of pre-service teachers' perceptions. The pre-service teachers rated the modeling of a lesson by an expert teacher at the beginning of the semester as the most instrumental in developing their level of understanding and expertise in planning and teaching lessons. Expert teacher coaching and demonstrations were rated highly as well. Pre-service teachers' use of running record data to determine the next step of teaching was useful to planning instruction and monitoring the progress of the students. Overall recommendations were for more demonstration teaching at the beginning of the semester so pre-service teachers would have more time to practice and more time to ask for expert teacher coaching.

Eighty percent of parents responded to a parent survey which asked about changes the parents observed in their child's reading. All of the responding parents indicated their child read more at home and enjoyed reading more. With one exception parents felt that their child talked more about reading and writing as well. Although these survey results were encouraging to the pre-service teachers, they were aware that they were only one part of the team of professionals dedicated to supporting these reluctant readers.

The video recordings of pre-service teachers instructing students at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester were useful for student self-evaluation of their growing level of expertise. A final power-point presentation with video clips of early and late teaching served as documentation of their growth.

In summary, this venture to improve pre-service teacher expertise in making data-based teaching decisions and implementing interventions for diverse early readers was perceived to be successful by pre-service teachers, college professors and parents.

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PRAGMATIC LEARNING ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Sharon Floyd

Pragmatics is the use of language in social and cultural contexts. Children who lack the ability to understand and use pragmatic language are typically found in the autism and related disorders population. Other children who struggle with using and understanding the contexts of social language live in a multicultural or second language environment where they must learn to use the pragmatic language of their secondary culture.

Autism, the third most common developmental disability, affects a child's ability to form normal social relationships relating to self, their environment, and with other children and adults (Richard 1997).

When students with Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD) are included within the school program, they typically learn social functional skills with the use of stories relating to a social issue they may have difficulty with, or a social issue within the classroom or school setting. When not addressed, students experience uneven prerequisite skills and lag in social development (Cox, 2002). Students with ASD need to be given, as much as possible, mainstream opportunities in a total school program. This will give them social language goals that include increased eye contact, reciprocal play, conversational turn taking, following implicitly one or more step directions, stating needs, initiating conversation, using appropriate volume and pitch, and understanding physical space between pairs in conversation (Richard 1997). There are many effective strategies a teacher can choose to implement pragmatic learning while keeping in mind

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how social skills learning aligns with the level of social skills development and behaviors. When the learning and training takes place within the mainstream setting students with ASD have the opportunity to interact with peer models, which facilitates fluency in acquisition of social skills (Elder, Caterino, Chao, Shacknai, & DeSimone, 2006). Parents also rate pragmatic learning as a high need skill for their children with ASD. In a survey, Elder et al., (2006) found that 78% of mothers with children with ASD rated social skills training as a highly important area of need.

It is important for educators to remember that as members of the general school population students with ASD need to demonstrate appropriate social behavior along with their mainstream age peers and not be kept in isolation from the general school program. Non-inclusion may cause student with ASD to develop poor interactions with other students or they may experience depression and psychological stress (Moyes, 2002). This may exhibit as low self-esteem. Research indicates that isolation and depression can have a direct affect on a child's ability to participate in activities on the school campus and in the community (Attwood, 1998) and that students with ASD may experience higher rates of low self-esteem as they increase in age.

Students with a secondary language are also in need of pragmatic learning within social and cultural contexts of the school environment to avoid cross-cultural misunderstanding. As students learn to speak a second language they also need to understand the social language norms for engaging in conversations (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

Teachers and others involved in teaching multicultural students social learning skills need to be aware of the lack of social understanding multicultural students may present. Teaching methods should include structured practice to accommodate social learning to ensure ease of learning inferences to understand another person's perspective; interpersonal skills to negotiate satisfaction for their needs and another person's needs; making a logical interpretation of another person's words or actions; and supporting a peer when the peer is faced with a difficult situation. Although social language narratives and role-plays provide an excellent source for teaching pragmatic social language skills, students also benefit from direct and scaffolded instruction when a social problem arises. Coaching students to give correct responses and to answer "how" and "why" questions helps to increase their ability to evaluate social interactions.

When teachers and staff are aware of the distinguishing features of pragmatic learning they will be able to help both students with ASD and multicultural students with their social language needs. Their coaching and instruction will include ways to navigate students through social language understanding.

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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION RECONSIDERED: LESSONS FROM COLLABORATING WITH INTERNATIONAL PARTNERS

Eileen B. Raymond
C. F. Pienaar

Inclusive education seemed a straightforward concept – until a U.S. Fulbright Scholar began a year-long collaboration with university and government school educators in South Africa, revising an existing remedial education program to meet future needs. This paper tells the story of the learning that resulted from their intercultural collaboration.

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In 2009, E. R. Raymond was selected as a U.S. Fulbright Scholar to Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) in Port Elizabeth, South Africa with the goal of exploring issues related to implementation of inclusive education in a different cultural and political context. At the same time, C. F. Pienaar and colleagues at NMMU were planning revisions to their Special Needs Education post-graduate program in remedial education. As we began our year-long collaboration, the core issue that kept surfacing was what we mean when we use the term *inclusive education*. It quickly became apparent that our individual uses of the word *inclusive* are shaped by our own contexts. We came to see how those differences were influencing our sense of the “possible,” determining the outcomes of any educational initiative. Together, we learned from and with each other, building a community of practice as we worked through the cultural contexts affecting service delivery to all learners, including those with special educational needs.

Inclusion/Inclusive Education in the U.S. Context

In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that separate education by race was inherently unequal, desegregating U.S. schools. However, American children with disabilities were still not guaranteed access to public education. With the passage of the Education of Handicapped Children Act, later known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), in 1975, we worked to assure that all children would now receive a free and appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment. Since 1975, there has been a steady shift toward placing students with disabilities in community schools, often in general education classrooms with supports. The debate over inclusion, defined as the full-time placement of students in general education classes with integrated supports, has continued, with inclusion seen as a goal but not for all students at all times (Council for Exceptional Children, 1997). Within this American context, the terms *inclusion* or *inclusive education* refer exclusively to access to educational services for those students with mild to severe disabilities. U.S. educators are expected to accommodate the needs of learners with disabilities, often collaborating with special educators and others support staff. There is little consideration about inclusion relating to other types of human diversity. The assumption is that the inclusion conversation is not relevant to learners without disabilities because these other students do not have learning needs requiring inclusionary supports to have meaningful access to education.

Shifting from Remedial/Special Needs to Inclusive Education in South Africa

During apartheid in South Africa, education was strictly segregated by race, with the quality of educational services dependent on the race of the learner and with no universal offering of services for learners with disabilities. Limited specialized schooling was available primarily for white students with significant disabilities in urban areas. When democracy was established in 1994, attention turned to providing equal access to education for all learners. A unified non-racial educational system was established. Teachers were trained to provide remedial services to learners as needed, with those with more serious disabilities still served in special schools. The primary perspective was that learning problems were within the learner and that the learner needed to develop skills to fit the school environment. In 2001, *Education White Paper 6* was published (South Africa, 2001). This landmark document called for the implementation of an

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inclusive educational system to serve all South African children and youth. Stating that all students can learn and that all need support, this document outlined a broad concept of inclusive education beyond its focus on individual disabilities. Recognizing that barriers to learning could exist within the learner, within the environment, or within the broader social, economic and political context, it also identified other factors beside disability that could put a learner at risk of failure. It called for an inclusive system to focus on the needs of all learners, assuring all learners an appropriate place to learn. Over the past 20 years, South Africa has moved from a limited recognition of the existence of individual learning needs, to seeing barriers to learning as intrinsic to the student, and now to recognizing that inclusive education involves meeting the support needs of every learner. While the governmental discourse around a broader concept of inclusive education considers many factors such as gender, socio-economic status, gifts/talents, language differences, religion, HIV/AIDS, and family status, many educators still continue to define inclusive education and barriers to learning with respect to disability.

Common Themes and Next Steps

In looking at a variety of international agreements and initiatives such as the *Salamanca Statement* (World Conference, 1994) and the *U.N. Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities*, we have come to realize that the terms *inclusion* and *inclusive education* hold a variety of meanings, often dependent on the political jurisdiction or the backgrounds and beliefs of individuals in the discussion (Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2010). The goal of education is to enable all learners to be active, contributing members of their communities. What differs from context to context is the way each of us believes this can best be done. Cultural context is central to the way a society determines if an individual is “different” enough to require special services. Achieving the goal of inclusive education in challenging contexts (e.g., large classes, small under-resourced classrooms, language differences) requires pedagogical skills and educational systems that are responsive to the full spectrum of educational needs, including disabilities, gifts/talents, second language learners, those with HIV/AIDS, and students who simply learn in a variety of ways. Educators for the future must develop a clearer understanding of what is meant by inclusive education in their context, who is to be included, and how the provision of services is affected by local contexts.

Questions remain: How do our personal conceptualizations of inclusive education affect the services we provide and which we believe would be useful and possible? How do we have meaningful conversations across contexts when the philosophies and even the meanings of the words themselves vary so significantly? What supports are needed to achieve the international and national goals related to UNESCO’s *Education for All* initiative (see www.unesco.org/new/en/education/)? What do our individual and collective understandings and assumptions with respect to the national and international policy documents suggest for the future of education in our respective countries and the degree to which an inclusive educational system is seen as “possible” for all learners?

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THE PLIGHT OF THE KENYAN ABLE SCHOOL MISFIT

Ogoma Shadrack Ochieng

Various international instruments guarantee every person's right to effective education. The intellectually gifted, like those with disabilities, have special education needs. Whereas Kenyan educational policies favour inclusive education, the gifted have remained at risk of underachievement, social isolation and emotional challenges.

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The International and National Instruments on Learners with Special Needs

The Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948 declares education for full development of personality and the World Declaration on Education for All of 1990 declares that every person has the right to educational opportunities designed to meet their learning needs. As a signatory to these international instruments, Kenya has conformed through the Children's Act of 2001 and Persons with Disabilities Act of 2003 which guarantee equal opportunities and entitlement to free and compulsory basic education. To cater for learners with special education needs, Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) established in 1968 trains teachers with competencies in special education needs. However, training at KISE emphasizes specializations in learners with various disabilities and learning difficulties (Lagatt, 2010, May).

The Prevalence and Definitions of the Intellectually Gifted

The intellectually gifted are estimated to make 3-5% of human population and are found in every school (Hallan, Kauffman, & Pullen, 2009). They are characterised by significantly higher inborn intellectual aptitude demonstrated by tendencies to (a) score highly in standardized tests (b) excel in school (c) be highly skilled in verbal competencies (d) acquire, retain and manipulate large amounts of information (e) learn in intuitive leaps and (f) have insatiable curiosities (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2007)

The Challenges Facing the Intellectually Gifted in the Inclusive Education

The above characteristics put the intellectually gifted at risk in the regular classroom curriculum. Intellectually, they may operate at higher class/grade-levels. Learning at their class/grade levels may be repetitive and not adequately challenging. This can lead to boredom and disruptive behaviours in class (Mastropieri, & Scruggs, 2007). The gifted themselves and others set high, unrealistic academic expectations which can be a source of stress to them. The stress makes them particularly vulnerable to the effects of bullying in regular classrooms. Indeed, they are significantly affected emotionally by the teasing about their intelligence to the extent that they are more prone to extreme anxiety and depression. The belief that intellectually gifted children do not have learning disabilities obscures the hidden disabilities from being identified. This and the peer pressure to conform may make them underachieve in regular setting (Perterson & Ray, 2006).

Adapting the Classroom Curriculum for the Intellectually Gifted

The challenges facing the intellectually gifted in the regular school settings justify curriculum differentiation for them. This is an approach where the regular school curriculum is modified to cater for the special ways they learn. According to Farmer (1996) it includes:

Enrichment approach: Teachers modify the regular curriculum to enable the gifted learn new things and be adequately challenged at their grade level. This can be achieved by giving more challenging assignments to the gifted, allowing them to take more options, encouraging them to

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participate in academic competitions and giving them extra work besides the regular class work. The approach has been criticised for overloading the students with work at lower ability level instead of providing the same amount of work at an advanced level.

Acceleration approach: The significantly high ability students are identified and placed at the appropriate higher class-level. Acceleration can take three forms: skipping a grade/class, telescoping (completing the regular curriculum in a shorter time) or partial acceleration (advancement in only one field).

Pull-out approach: High ability students learn in mixed ability classes. However, they are pulled out to spend a portion of the school time in gifted high ability classes. The pull-out sessions may range from an hour per week to half-a-day daily. In the pull-out classes, the gifted are placed in programs to develop critical and creative thinking skills. The approach lacks academic advancement since content covered may not be an extension of the regular curriculum.

Compacting approach: High ability students are pre-tested and identified on the basis of content mastery. Whereas they remain in the regular classroom, they are exempted from the content in which they are proficient. The high ability students learn new and challenging content everyday and the non-repetitive work spares them boredom and disruptive behaviours.

Self-pacing method: The high ability students remain in the regular classrooms but are allowed to advance at their own pace. Flexible groups are formed based on content proficiency levels. Material of appropriate level of challenge is given to the groups. This method may be energy draining to the teacher.

Full-time separate classes or schools: In the separate-classes approach, the high ability students learn in regular schools but are placed in the gifted classes to be taught by teachers trained in curriculum differentiation. They interact with their average peers which allows for their social and emotional development. In the separate schools, the high ability students are segregated into special schools. Whereas students' learning needs are adequately served, this approach runs contrary to the inclusive education policy and may be very expensive.

The Case of Kenya

High ability students are in schools and are at risk of academic underachievement, social isolation, and emotional and behavioural challenges. Does Kenyan educational system and policies cater for their learning needs?

Kenyan 8-4-4 education system (8 years of elementary, 4 years of secondary and 4 years of university education) is an examination oriented, linear system. It does not allow for curriculum differentiation for the intellectually gifted. The national special needs education policy (Lagatt, 2010, May) does not consider the intellectually gifted as learners with special needs. Consequently, Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE), and other teacher training institutions emphasise the training of teachers for learners with disabilities but not learners with high abilities. In effect, there are no mechanisms for flexible delivery of curriculum to cater for

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learners with special talents and abilities in Kenyan regular schools.

Conclusion

The plight of the Kenyan able school misfit is real. Policies on special needs education and teacher training institutions do not consider the special needs of the gifted. There is need for concerted effort to reorganize the school curriculum, environment, and educational policies to explicitly provide for the special needs of the gifted.

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COLLABORATING WITH STUDENTS IN INSTRUCTION AND DECISION-MAKING: THE UNTAPPED AND ALWAYS AVAILABLE RESOURCE

Richard A. Villa
Jacqueline S. Thousand

Collaboration with students in the design, delivery, and evaluation of instruction and decision-making involves students working in cooperative learning groups, as tutors and partners in

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partner learning (e.g., reciprocal teaching), and as co-teachers with their teachers. Collaboration with students means involving students as decision makers and problem solvers, as designers of their own learning and being self-determined in planning for their own futures. Collaboration with students means engaging students as mediators of conflict and controversy and advocates for themselves and others. Collaboration with students means fostering self-discipline and student learning and use of responsible behavior.

There are multiple rationales for collaborating with students in instruction and decision-making. Namely, it (a) facilitates 21st century goals of education; (b) is an example of democratic schooling; (c) increases self determination of students; (d) increases academic and social competence of students; (e) facilitates school reform efforts; and (e) represents an untapped resource in times of limited fiscal and human resources.

What Are Theoretical Frameworks for Collaborating and Teaching with Students?

First, from a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theoretical perspective (Vygotsky, 1987), what children can do with the assistance of others is more indicative of their mental development than what they can do alone. Further, cognitive psychologists have verified that when students become reciprocal teachers of one another (i.e., both students alternate being the teacher who coaches the comprehension skills they are learning), reading comprehension scores of poor readers increase (Palinscar & Brown, 1984).

What is the Research Base for Teaching with Students?

Educational researchers have identified one variation of student instructional collaboration - cooperative group learning - as one of the top nine best educational practices correlated with increasing student achievement on standardized tests (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollack, 2001). Many positive social, communication, and academic achievement outcomes have been reported in the research on peer tutoring, partner learning, reciprocal teaching, and cooperative group learning – four variations of students serving as collaborators in instruction. For example, when students with disabilities have served as reciprocal tutors/tutees, they have shown higher achievement as compared to when they were only recipients of tutoring (Elbaum, Moody, Vaughn, Schumm, & Hughes, 2001). They also experience increased self- esteem as a result of being in the teacher role (Elbaum et al., 2001). Additionally, when children serve in teaching roles, they are increasing their own mastery of the content as well as learning valuable communication skills.

With regard to peer tutoring, it is critical that all students (e.g., students with learning differences and special educational needs) learn to serve as tutors and have the opportunity to learn as tutees from their peers. This is especially important for students who are considered gifted or talented, lest they become typecast as tutors only. They too can benefit from being tutored and receiving a challenging education filled with diverse activities and opportunities. Tutoring other students can be one exciting and challenging component of their day.

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As an adult, we invite you to reflect on your own personal experiences as a youth and student. To what extent did you participate in experiences that allowed you to take on collaborative instructional and creative decision-making roles? Reflect on the 15 questions in the Student Collaboration Quiz. How might your experiences as a student have influenced your teaching practices and the collaborative opportunities you make available to students today? Finally, think about how the collaborative experiences suggested in the quiz might facilitate student growth in academic, communication, and social/emotional domains?

Student Collaboration Quiz

Directions: Please circle the rating that best fits your own experience as a student.

1. How often were you expected to support the academic and social learning of other students as well as be accountable for your own learning by working in cooperative groups?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
2. Were you, as a student, given the opportunity and training to serve as an instructor for a peer?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
3. Were you, as a student, given the opportunity to receive instruction from a trained peer?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
4. How often were you involved in a discussion of the teaching act with an instructor?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
5. Were you, as a student given the opportunity to co-teach a class with an adult?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
6. How often were you taught creative problem solving strategies and given an opportunity to employ them to solve academic or behavioral challenges?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
7. How often were you asked to evaluate your own learning?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
8. How often were you given the opportunity to assist in determining the educational outcomes for you and your classmates?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
9. How often were you given the opportunity to advocate for the educational interests of a classmate or asked to assist in determining modifications and accommodations to curriculum?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
10. How often were you asked to provide your teachers with feedback as to the effectiveness and appropriateness of their instruction and classroom management?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
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11. Were you, as a student, given the opportunity and training to serve as a mediator of conflict between peers?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
-------	--------	-----------	-------	------------
12. How often were you, as a student, encouraged to bring a support person to a difficult meeting to provide you with moral support?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
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13. How often were you provided the opportunity to lead or facilitate meetings addressing your academic progress and/or future (e.g., Developing Personal Learning Plans, Student-Parent-Teacher Conferences, an IEP meeting)?

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Very Often

14. How often did you participate as an equal with teachers, administrators, and community members on school committees (e.g., curriculum committee, discipline committee, hiring committee, school board)?

Never Rarely Sometimes Often Very Often

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A TANZANIAN DILEMMA: SCHOOL ACCESSIBILITY FOR CHILDREN WITH DIFFICULTIES

Swaleha (Sally) Mohamedali

*“Education is the most powerful weapon with which you can use to change the world”
Nelson Mandela*

Cabbot (2010), PAA explains that

“The words spoken by Nelson Mandela, have particular resonance when applied to poor nations. Education is not only a right, but is also a major step on the ladder to development. This is reflected in the second millennium development goal, which is to achieve universal primary education for ‘children everywhere, girls and boys alike’ by 2015. Tanzania has taken steps towards reaching this goal by abolishing school fees for primary education in government schools in 2002. However, barriers to truly universal education remain; in particular for Children With Disabilities (CWD).”

As seen throughout mankind’s evolution, children with difficulties have been backbenched and swept onto the sidelines as no one was willing or perhaps could not understand them. However, we also see that many people with difficulties, intellectually to be specific, have used their unique way of thinking to change our world from the way we know it.

As signified in Bela Raja’s *Learning with Difficulties*, people like Thomas Edison and Alexander Bell have sparkled our lives, while Albert Einstein kept us moving and others like Whoopi Goldberg and Tom Cruise ignited some sparks into our world. From these people and many others, we can see that it is due to their disability that we were able to overcome our materialistic difficulties. And it is with the need of integrating such people into our societies that inclusive education is needed.

According to Sai Vayrynen and Aimo Naukkanmen (2009), *National Strategy on Inclusive Education*, the first and most current meaning of Inclusive Education is “to transform the educational system of all schools to cater for all children, regardless of creed, race, nature or disability” (pg.2). Therefore, Inclusive Education is a system of education in which all children, youth and adults are enrolled. They are supposed to actively participate and achieve in regular schools and other education programs regardless of their diverse backgrounds and abilities, without discrimination, through the minimization of barriers and the maximization of resources. Inclusion is meant to provide children with disabilities opportunities to learn appropriate social skills from their peers. CWD may be able to deal with this curriculum, but are they really getting the services they need, or is the district doing inclusion to do special education on the cheap? Many of these students are set adrift in a sea of adolescent anxiety. The government/ city council have to work with parents to see that special education teachers act not only as case managers, but also as coaches for these students with some very specific and challenging social deficits. To actually access an education which we all take for granted can be a true struggle. Statistically, out of Tanzania’s population of 42 million, 19.2 million are children, out of which, 1% to 2% lives with a disability!

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Just imagine school life for 10 year old Fatema who is very keen to learn and very welcome at the regular school she attends, but who still faces barriers daily. Born with cerebral palsy (CP), her arms and legs are twisted and she is very short in stature. Her wheel chair pushed by a friend, bumps over the rocky school grounds and she struggles with the large step outside her classroom. Simply getting around the school is a problem with the sandy, stony ground and no wheel chair ramps to help.

At Fatemas' school, there are no toilet facilities for children like her. As is this case in many local schools, the toilet is a hole in the ground so it is impossible for her to use. The schools are not necessarily to blame; small budgets mean that priorities are elsewhere. It has been found that for CWD to be fully functioning in Tanzanian schools, WASH facilities (Water Sanitation Hygiene) need to be specially designed and constructed to accommodate a wheel chair and for those with visual and physical impairments. Since the learning experience is more than just traditional classroom teaching, all aspects of CWD's school experience should be accommodated to create an inclusive environment. "Indeed, without the comfort and privacy of suitable facilities to meet basic human needs, no child can be made to feel truly welcome".

CWD tend to miss out on the opportunities available to others, this is particularly acute in the monarchy of education. Without an education, CWD typically grow into unemployed, isolated adults and cycles of poverty are perpetuated.

As noted by Cabot (2010), "The 2006 convention on the rights of people with disabilities states that CWD should have access to 'an inclusive, quality and free' primary and secondary education and that access to education throughout life must be free from discrimination." In response, Tanzania's national strategy for growth and reduction of poverty seeks to mainstream disability issues into its five year general poverty reduction plan. Also known by its Kiswahili acronym MKUKUTA – mpango wa serekali wa kupunguza umasikini tanzania it's goal is to also see 20% of total primary school enrolment comprising CWD. As we know, in reality, life for CWD is rather different.

It is estimated that only between one (1) or two (2) percent of CWD in developing countries attend school, even though many of them are perfectly capable of doing so. Given the problems faced by children like Fatema it is easy to understand why. In addition to socio-economic barriers, the infrastructure of the school environment in Tanzania often makes schools inaccessible and a widespread lack of appropriate water, sanitation and hygiene facilities compounds the problems.

Research by the school WASH partnership (comprising SNV, water aid and UNICEF), demonstrates the widespread inadequacy of WASH facilities in many areas of Tanzania where there is no formal coordination for school WASH. There is an overall shortage of 25,000 latrines and an average of 68 pupils per latrine (the ministry of education and vocational training's draft 'minimum' standard is 20 girls and 25 boys per latrine). There was in addition, a severe lack of soap and only 10 percent had sufficient water for hand washing. Health is a major concern, but human dignity must also be regarded as a significant issue.

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As Cabot (2010) reveals,

“Sarah, house WASH manager in the Young Child Survival & Development Section of UNICEF Tanzania, explains the problem, “Poor design and accessibility of latrines and water points and poor sanitary condition of latrines in school pose significant challenges for children with disabilities. It can lead to them missing out on school or can contribute to dropping out of school altogether. It is not acceptable for children with disabilities to be excluded from education because of poor thought and resources to this issue. It is crucial that all stakeholders pay high attention to this issue to ensure that the situation is improved so that all disabled children will be able to fulfill their rights to water and sanitation and ultimately to education”.

“The integration of CWD into the school environment is a critical factor in the rehabilitation process and for ending discrimination in Tanzanian society. It is also an important step towards economic development. So the school infrastructure must cater for all pupils. If a CWD overcomes the already large barriers to education by attending a regular school, then the school environment must welcome them. Without an education, the state of poverty in which many people with disabilities live will perpetuate.”

But, if CWD are to be truly included in main stream education, this situation needs to be severely addressed.

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LESSONS FROM THE FIELD: CULTURALLY RELEVANT TEACHING PRACTICES REGARDING GUIDANCE AND DISCIPLINE WITH YOUNG CHILDREN

Ellen R. Browning

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In the United States, research reported in 2002 more than 10% of children have diminished friendships (Goodwin, Pacey, & Grace, 2003). They found that the most common referring behavior for intervention related to hostility or violence in the preschool period. Without intervention, preschool age students do not experience a positive foundation for replacing negative behaviors and will likely continue their aggressive behavior. Causal factors for atypical behaviors could result from developmental delays, family tolerance toward aggression models either real or from television and movies, and emerging mental health needs (Denham, 1998).

Early intervention for aggressive behavior was reported to be the single most effective strategy for preventing later delinquency (Zigler, Taussig, & Balck, 1992). Aggressive young children were found to benefit from support and encouragement for replacing aggressive behaviors with more socially acceptable alternatives. Such techniques included helping young children label and verbalize their feeling and the feelings of others, acquire problem-solving techniques for resolving conflicts, seeking and obtaining assistance from others, and acknowledging the effects of their aggressive acts on others. Children learned effective anger management strategies, such as slowed breathing, thinking and then communicating alternatives were less likely to engage in aggressive acts.

In this study, current practices for intervening with families with children from culturally diverse families were investigated. Twelve teachers spanning preschool age through first grade (ages three to seven years) were interviewed about positive and challenging behaviors displayed by the children, effective interventions and their implementation, and grouping of children. The foundation for these questions was based on complementary strands of evidence. First, David Elkind's (2007) work stressed the importance of play as a factor in the development of thought, action, and learning. Likewise, positive guidance and the development appropriate play were emphasized by the National Association for the Education Young Children (NAEYC) (Cople & Bredekamp, 2009). Currently, a national dissemination project in the United States, entitled the Center for Social Emotional Foundations of Early Learning (CSEFEL) Promoting Social Emotional Competence in Young Children, used a tiered approach to intervention in which some practices were implemented with entire groups of young children, the second tier consisted of focused instruction for smaller groups of students, and the next tier was intensive intervention specific to an individual student. An additional tier was devoted to more specialized intervention capitalizing on the expertise of special education professionals.

Having a model for intervention and the value of play and learning alternatives to aggression, it was important to determine culturally relevant practices that were consistent with recommended practices that were being implemented in the field. Results from this study found that positive behaviors portrayed by children included: having empathy, being concerned for others, exhibiting fairness, sharing, and accepting others. In this study, positive achievement by students from diverse families was a function of having a personal connection with the teacher.

In contrast, challenging behaviors displayed by children involved having difficulty: solving conflicts, confronting others, waiting, following daily routines, keeping hands and feet to themselves, etc. In response to these difficult behaviors, the teachers often used a quiet voice, consistency, implementation of routines, provision of choices, praise, teaching of appropriate

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behaviors in large groups, reading related stories, and use of social stories. These effective strategies mirrored the recommended practices in the literature. The NAEYC advocates use of positive practices such as positive reinforcement, consistency, voice modulation, and choices. Likewise, CSEFEL (2008) suggested use of strategies to prevent and respond to difficult behaviors. Interviewees reported use of social stories, pausing (e.g., Turtle technique- stop, take three breaths, think of an alternative action to perform), and large group. For large group instruction, reading of culturally relevant books provided a context in which to discuss social skills and relationships. Jacqueline Woodson's (2001) book "The Other Side" was an example of a book that explored cultural difference and the formation of friendships based on individual characteristics. In addition, teachers used large group instruction to teach new methods by asking questions and having the students practice the new behavior.

For effective teaching, our interviewees used different groupings. For example, large groups were typically used for stories, discussion, and directions for the upcoming lessons. In contrast, small group and individual instruction were considered more effective for center time and discussion of troublesome behaviors.

Future research is recommended to explore current teacher practices. It could be informative to determine effective practices based on the setting and size of the group. Furthermore, longitudinal research is needed to investigate the lasting effects of the procedures suggested in this article.

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DIFFERENTIATING INSTRUCTION IN MIXED-ABILITY CLASSROOMS

Jacqueline S. Thousand
Richard A. Villa

What is Differentiated Instruction?

Differentiated instruction is a teaching philosophy based on the premise that teachers should adapt instruction to student differences, because all students do not learn in the same way, at the same time, or at the same rate. Differentiated instruction begins with gathering facts about students so that instructional personnel can react responsively to students' varying background knowledge, culture, life circumstances, readiness, language, learning preferences, strengths, and interests. Based upon this student-centered information, educators then may design multiple options for students to take in information (content and materials), making sense of ideas (process), and expressing what they have learned (products and grading).

What are Differentiation Questions?

Content Differentiation Questions

Among the questions to consider when thinking about differentiating instructional content and materials are the following:

What are the curriculum standards or objectives?

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What are the academic/social/language goals of the learners?
What are recommendations from professional organizations?
In what order will concepts/content be taught?
What multi-level and multi-sensory materials will best convey concepts and content to each student?
In what ways can we use technology (e.g., text-to-speech software)?
Will we differentiate level of knowledge or proficiency?

Process Differentiation Questions

Among the questions to consider when thinking about how to differentiate the moment-to-moment instructional processes are four process dimensions. The first dimension, *instructional format*, concerns the overall design or structure of a lesson. Instructional format range from more interactive lectures, where the teacher pauses every five to 10 minutes for students to interact and process information to more student-centered formats such as simulations and role plays, discovery learning, group investigations, and web-based formats. The second process dimension, the *instructional arrangement* dimension, concerns student groupings during instruction. Arrangements ranges from students working individually, either independently or with direct instruction from a teacher or tutor, to partnerships as same-age or cross-age partner learners or members of cooperative learning groups. Whole group instruction is also an instruction arrangement appropriate when introducing new content to an entire class.

Instructional strategies, a third process dimension, are the research-based instructional techniques, methods, or applications of theoretical frameworks (e.g. Multiple Intelligences) employed during instruction. The integration of the arts in instructional also is an example of an instructional strategy as is the use of a taxonomy such as Bloom's taxonomy to differentiate the level of complexity (e.g., knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, evaluation, synthesis) at which students interact with the content.

The fourth process dimension of *physical and social environment* concerns the social, behavioral, and physical norms established within the classroom and strategic arrangements of the physical environment within of the classroom. It can included teaching responsibility and decision making, the establishment of positive behavior support systems in the school and classroom as well as group and individual student behavioral and social/emotional support plans and structures..

Product Differentiation Questions

Questions to consider when thinking about differentiating ways in which students can show what they have learned include:

What are the product options and how will they be assessed?

What multi-level assessments and criteria will be used?

Which authentic (e.g., real life) products will be created?

How will products be evaluated (e.g., via rubrics)?

Examples of widely diverse ways in which student can show or represent what they know

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include the production of a model, collage or mural dance, poem/rap/song, mnemonic, pod case, photo essay, TV commercial, PowerPoint, or an editorial or other written presentation. Role plays, demonstrations and simulations, oral histories and presentations are yet other examples.

Addressing Mismatches Between Student Characteristics and Classroom Demands

Part of differentiation involves educators discovering and addressing mismatches between a student's characteristics and the typical demands of a lesson or classroom. To discover and address matches involves a simple four-step process. First, gather information about a student's learning characteristics including strengths. Second, gather information about the typical content, product, and process demands of a lesson or classroom. Third, compare student data with the demands of the lesson or class in order to identify content, process, and product mismatches with the student's characteristics. Fourth, with the mismatches in mind, brainstorming multiple potential solutions for each mismatch in ways that not only acknowledges but also uses the student's characteristics and strengths. As teachers become more adept at proactively differentiating the content, process, and product dimensions of their lessons and more automatically vary materials, goals, instructional processes, and assessment methods to accommodate the differences of all of the students in their classrooms, there will be less of a need to activate a retroactive solution-finding process such as this to resolve mismatches for individual students. The differentiation will already be built into lessons, the classroom design, and the climate of the classroom.

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CAN WE USE YOUR PHOTO? USING PHOTOGRAPHS IN RESEARCH WITH PEOPLE WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Sue Ralph
Valerie Farnsworth

Recently there has been increased regulation of ethical review processes for research involving human subjects (Dingwell, 2006.) There has also been increased interest in the use of visual approaches in qualitative research and greater access internationally to digital media and the internet. Traditional social research methods usually present barriers to the involvement of people who have intellectual disabilities (Boxall & Ralph (2009). Photovoice is one visual methodology which provides an important research methodology which can be used to give a “voice” to otherwise unheard groups of people (Wang, 2007). However, the use of visual images in research raises a number of ethical issues and these are further compounded where the research is undertaken with people with learning disabilities. In photovoice the research participants are provided with cameras and asked to document an area of concern. Thus they control both the “voice” and “photo” aspects of the research (Wang, 2007). Learning occurs in dialogue and research participants and not professionals or researchers must decide which photographs are selected, where and when they are to be used and which comments are included. Webb (2004) describes the methodology as a starting point for social action and comments, “...if the people directly affected are not engaged as part of the solution then, I suggest, we do not have solution to the root problem – only another bandaid patching up a hole in the existing system of ‘welfare’ that is itself part of the wider social problem we face today” (p.1). The research participants and not the researchers define the research question.

Historically research about intellectual disability has been produced by people without intellectual disabilities. However, this has been challenged by a number of authors and interest has been growing in participatory approaches to research where people with intellectual disabilities have been involved in planning and conducting research (Reason and Heron, 1995). In 1995, Minkes et al maintained that if people with intellectual disabilities are involved “at every stage of the research process ...the end result is better research, which is of more direct benefit to people with intellectual disabilities” (p.94). Photovoice and its philosophical underpinnings fit well with participatory methodologies. Giving people cameras “empowers them in a way that buries the issues of acquiescence and compliance frequently raised in other forms of research”(Booth and Booth, 2003, p. 432) and they are able to exercise choice as competent participants in a research process. However, image based research raises a number of important issues which Prosser (2000, p.16) refers to as the “Moral Maze” of image ethics which include working with people who are unable to take the photographs themselves and may need to use supported decision making methods. People who do not use speech or a recognised signing system may need to use ‘proxy respondents’ (Stancliffe, 1999), where people who know the individual well can interpret their communications or speak on their behalf. This can raise issues of validity and concerns about the “self-serving bias’ of ‘proxy respondent’ (Clements, Rapley & Cummins, 1999) However, these methods do enable people with profound and multiple intellectual disabilities to have a voice.

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Digital Imagery and the Internet are now widely accessible to people from all over the world. Although this relatively inexpensive form of communication is welcomed there is a darker side to it. The internet is a major source for distributing abusive images about children. Wang (2007) emphasises the safety and wellbeing of participants as paramount. Care must be taken to ensure there are no signs in photographs or on websites which will allow others to indentify them and possibly identify them in the community. With people who have an intellectual disability how do we ensure they understand the implications of putting digital information on the internet? How do we ensure we have informed consent? All research information needs to be in an accessible format. Who determines whether research participants can understand the information provided and the wider implications and consequences of their involvement? Who should seek the consent? How far should parents, carers or advocates be involved (if at all) and who should seek the consent? Researchers or staff who work with the potential participants? How do we ensure that decisions about consent are made by people who have the best interests of the individual as their prime concern? (Care staff involved will have loyalties beyond the person). How do we deal with participants who do not use speech or a recognised signing system? What are the implications for consent with people from different cultures? How do we manage issues of power and control, ensure people with intellectual disabilities have an equal say in all meetings and decisions about the research and how do academics meet their institutions and funders research requirements? Participatory research takes more time than traditional research.

Publication of findings on the internet and public access to images: Participants control the use and dissemination of research findings. How does this fit with the demands on academics to publish in good quality journals? Research governance guidelines in the UK are not that helpful when dealing with these issues and are more concerned with a framework that safeguards research organisations. The Mental Capacity Acts (2005 and 2008) are concerned about when and how decisions can be made on behalf of people whose decision making abilities may be impaired (Boxall & Ralph, 2009). It is to be hoped that the tighter ethical regulation of social research (which are to be welcomed), combined with the considerable ethical images raised by using image based research does not discourage the use and development of creative visual approaches to intellectual disability research (Boxhall & Ralph, 2009).The research community must engage with theses issue if people with intellectual disabilities are not to be excluded from participatory image based research (Iacono, 2006).

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USING GAMES/SIMULATIONS TO EXAMINE DISCRIMINATORY ATTITUDES (AS PART OF A DISABILITY AWARENESS RAISING PROGRAM)

Sue Ralph
 Sheena Bell

The aim of this activity is to encourage educators to examine their attitudes towards people who
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are often perceived as “different”. For example, people with disabilities. The discrimination practiced against people with disabilities is well documented (Haller and Ralph, 2010, Shaw Trust, 2010). Despite civil rights legislation such as the Disability Discrimination Act (1995) and the Americans with Disabilities Act (1990) which have helped to raise awareness of disability rights issues, people with disabilities still often feel that the dominant able-bodied culture, defines and classifies disability. Often these dominant beliefs ignore or represent people with disabilities negatively (BFI,2010, Haller and Ralph, 2010). Our attitudes towards people with disabilities are formed by our understanding of the cause and nature of disability. Many people’s views are based on the medical model of disability (Rieser, 2002) where people with disabilities are unable to fully participate in society because of their impairment or illness. The “problem” is with the individual person who is “sick” and in need of a “cure”. (Disability Action in Islington, 2005) whereas disability civil rights groups have promoted the social Model (Terzi, 2004) where the “problem” is society’s social structures and attitudes. The mass media plays a powerful role in all our lives. “The media are mirrors of society and reflect our norms, beliefs and values, acting as a prism through which we interpret the world around us” (www.ameamedia.gr/en/conference, 2009).

This simulation is entitled “Blue Fly disease” where a group of participants each argue for a “person” with an “issue” to receive one of the few doses of the available vaccine. Those not receiving the medication will die whilst those people who do receive it will go on to repopulate the world. The group decides after a discussion who will be given the vaccine.

Participants sit in a circle and each takes a “Person” card and an “Issue” card from the shuffled packs. Each person reads their combination to the group and the discussion follows. The facilitator does not take part in the discussion but observes the process so they are able to provide feedback and lead a debriefing session. The discussion is stopped after 30 minutes and are they are then asked to spend a few minutes writing their reflections about the process, what decisions were made and why? The facilitator then leads the debrief.

Many stereotypic assumptions are usually made. For example, from the person cards the following discussion points may emerge: You are:

- a priest.... often the dominant religion/faith of the group emerges. There is little cultural discussion; usually assumed to be male;
- a 23 year old secretary....gender assumptions are made, she is female and should be given the vaccine as she will be able to have children, has nothing “wrong” with her;
- a carpenter.....gender assumptions made; male; useful (but this changes if “he” has a disability);
- a doctor... gender assumptions; male; useful give the doctor the vaccine,
- a nurse....gender assumptions; female, useful; give her the vaccine.
- a mother with two children....she is female and has children so could produce some more. Rarely is there a discussion about her age!
- a policeman with a gun: they cannot be separated.... male and issues of power are discussed; the need for law and order in the new world.
- a teacher.... often female, could be useful or not as there will be very few children.
- a farmer...gender assumptions, male, useful as he can grow food.

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a housewife....”only” a housewife is a common expression, she doesn’t work and therefore has no useful skills.

From the issue cards the following discussion points may emerge: You :
are a wheelchair user.... as you can’t walk you are seen as useless, can’t do anything;
have a facial disfigurement....you can’t have children! You are disabled and don’t have any useful skills;
are Homosexual or lesbian.....you can’t have children; many cultural taboos;
are Deaf or Blind....useless as you cannot hear or see or communicate;
Experience depression.....mentally ill, mad, don’t work;
they have a learning disability....thick, stupid, can’t understand anything or do any thing. They have no skills;
they have one leg..what use will they be in the new world, they have a mobility difficulty?
they are HIV positive....they can’t have children. “They will die anyway so why save them now”. They could pass on the virus to others.

Discussion

The combinations of Issue cards and Person cards which occur lead to interesting situations and discussions. For example: a homosexual priest; a wheelchair user who is a carpenter; a doctor who is HIV positive; Deaf nurse or a teacher who is blind.

Participants usually see only the “issue” and not the whole person. A homosexual priest can’t have children (why not?) is of no real use because he only has priest skills. (what are these skills and what other skills might a priest have?) They see only the obvious, do not think beyond the stereotypic impressions and do not fully explore all the other skills a person may have. A housewife is often referred to as “she is only a housewife!” Think of the many skills “only” a housewife must have. For example, cleaning, DIY, budgeting, planning, organising, child care, nutritionalist etc.

This activity can enable some students to face and deal with their prejudices. Ideally it would be used as part of a disability awareness programme and could be followed up by other activities such as discussing the issues raised in the DVDs, Talk (2007), “Actions Speak Louder than words”

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**A STUDY OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS INCLUSION AND ITS
RELATIONSHIP TO SOME DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES IN SPAIN**

Esther Chiner
María-Cristina Cardona

In the past decades Spain has developed a very progressive legislative body regarding the inclusion of students with special educational needs (SEN) in regular settings (LOGSE, 1990; LOE, 2006). At this moment, teachers have to confront the new demands of having all students, regardless of their learning needs, in their classes which means changes in their roles, responsibilities and teaching practices. To know what teachers think about inclusion will be decisive in order to promote more successful inclusive settings.

Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion have been, indeed, one of the major concerns in educational research. Literature reflects that teachers agree with the general concept of inclusion (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). However, their attitudes are less positive when they have to include SEN students in their classrooms. This ambivalence seems to be related to some variables, such training, resources and supports to address students' needs

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(Cardona, 2000; Horne & Timmons, 2009). In addition to these concerns, some teachers' characteristics may also be related to their attitudes towards inclusion, such as gender, grade level taught and teaching experience (Forlin, 1995; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, taking into account the conditions under which inclusion is being developed in the province of Alicante, Spain. The study was also to determine to what extent teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are related to some specific demographic variables such as grade level taught, teaching experience and gender.

Methods

Participants

The sample consisted of 336 regular education teachers (68 kindergartens, 133 elementary education, and 135 secondary education) randomly selected from 78 schools of the province of Alicante, Spain. A total of 109 were male and 221 were female. Fifty-one percent had over 15 years of teaching experience; 21% had 9 to 15 years; 16% between 4 and 8 years of teaching experience; and 12% of the respondents had 3 or less years of teaching experience.

Instrumentation

The *Teachers' Perceptions towards Inclusion Questionnaire* (Cardona, Gómez-Canet & González-Sánchez, 2000) was used to examine teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. The instrument consisted of 12 items using a five-point Likert rating scale. The instrument showed an acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .69$).

Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed personally to each of the 78 participating schools. After the first deadline (two weeks) all responded surveys were collected and the return date was extended for those teachers who had not responded to their instruments.

Results

Teachers' Attitudes Towards Inclusion

Overall, respondent attitudes towards inclusion were favourable ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .64$). A high percentage of the participants agreed with the concept of inclusion and considered that (a) inclusive education favours the development of tolerance and respect, (b) it is not fair to separate children with SEN from the rest of their peers, and (c) that inclusion has more advantages than disadvantages. Nevertheless, a low percentage of the respondents thought that it is possible to teach students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular classrooms and very few agreed that inclusion is possible in secondary education.

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Training and Availability of Resources and Supports

Perceptions of teacher training and availability of material resources and personal supports were, however, less positive ($M = 2.30$, $SD = .82$). The majority of the respondents thought that training, resources and supports are insufficient to attend diversity.

Teachers' Attitudes Regarding Demographic Variables

Statistically significant differences were found regarding grade level taught. Kindergarten and elementary school teachers were more positive towards inclusion than secondary education teachers. No statistically significant differences were found considering other factors such as teaching experience and gender.

Discussion

Overall, teachers from the province of Alicante agreed with the concept of inclusion, although they are reluctant to include students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular classes and think that inclusion in secondary education is difficult to achieve. These findings are consistent with previous research (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Alemany & Villuendas, 2004) that shows that teachers support inclusion but not total inclusion. However, despite the acceptance of the principles of inclusion, they find some barriers to its implementation (lack of training, resources and supports) which may be hindering teacher willingness to put inclusion into practice. These results support those from (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002), and Horne and Timmons (2009) that suggest that teachers do not have enough training, time and resources to meet students' needs.

Findings showed that kindergarten and elementary educators had more favourable attitudes towards inclusion than secondary education teachers. The results support those of Clough and Lindsay (1991) that state that teachers of higher education levels show less positive attitudes towards inclusive education. More pre-service and on-going programmes should be developed to help secondary education teachers to learn more about the education of SEN students. A better understanding of students' individual differences and their learning styles will keep teachers from developing prejudices towards them and will help to promote positive attitudes towards inclusion.

Findings from this study should help educational administrators to set the conditions and to make right decisions to ensure that all students, including those with SEN, will receive the best instruction and will fully participate of the curriculum and the school community.

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RESTRUCTURING FOR CARING AND EFFECTIVE EDUCATION

Richard A. Villa
Jacqueline S. Thousand

Inclusive Schooling

Restructuring for caring and effective education is for the purpose of and results in the creation of an inclusive school. Inclusive schooling can be defined as welcoming, valuing, empowering, and supporting the diverse academic and social learning of *all* students in shared environments and experiences to facilitate the attainment of the goals of education. The authors have asked hundreds of thousands of parents, teachers, administrators, students, university professors, and concerned citizens in multiple countries across the globe the following questions: “What do you believe should be the goals of education? What are the desired outcomes, attitudes, dispositions, and skills you want children and youth to acquire as a result of their schooling?” What we have noticed about the responses to these questions is that regardless of the divergent perspectives, vested interests, or locales of the people queried, the responses fall within four categories - belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity. These four categories of holistic well-being borrowed from the 10,000-year-old educational philosophy of Native American cultures appear to be universally-desired goals of education today (Villa & Thousand, 2005).

There are multiple rationales for advocating for inclusive schooling. As illustrated in the previous paragraph, one rationale is that the goals of education appear to be universal and inclusive of all children and youth. A second rationale is that these goals are most achievable in inclusive rather than segregated settings. Third, contemporary international and national laws, policies, and organizational position statements support inclusive schooling. Fourth, inclusive schooling already exists in both developed and developing countries, suggesting the international possibilities. Finally, research documents the sweeping benefits of inclusive schooling.

Research Outcomes of Inclusive Schooling

As early as the 1980s, research showed that separate schooling experiences had little to no positive effects for U.S. students with specialized needs (i.e. students eligible for special education) (Villa & Thousand, 2005). Meta-analyses of effective special education settings concluded, “special-needs students educated in regular classes do better academically and socially than comparable students in non-inclusive settings” (Baker, Wang, & Wahlberg, 1994, p. 34). This held true regardless of the type of disability or grade level of the student. The U. S. Department of Education found that “across a number of analyses of post-school results, the message was the same: those who spent more time in regular education experienced better results after high school” (1995, p. 87). Researchers have also found that the inclusion of students with severe disabilities did not have adverse effects on classmates’ academic or behavioral success as measured by standardized tests and report card grades. In fact, their inclusion enhanced classmates’ as well as their own achievement, self-esteem, and school attendance (Sharpe, York, & Knight, 1994; Straub & Peck, 1994).

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In a more recent large study of over 11, 000 students with disabilities, Blackorby and colleagues (2005) found that students with disabilities who spend more time in general education classrooms had fewer absences, performed closer to grade level than peers in pull-out settings, and had higher achievement test scores. Although some outcome differences have been found among students with various kinds of disabilities, overall, this study confirmed that students with disabilities educated in inclusive general education settings outperformed their peers educated in separate settings on standards-based assessments.

Overall, the data speak volumes. Students with disabilities acquire greater mastery of academic and social content in inclusive settings. As the United States federal legislation acknowledges in the most recent reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education t Act (IDEA) of 2004, “nearly 30 years of research and experience has demonstrated that the education of children with disabilities can be made more effective by having high expectations and ensuring students’ access in the general education curriculum to the maximum extent possible.... [and] providing appropriate special education and related services and aides and supports in the regular classroom to such children, whenever possible.” (20 U.S.C. 1400(c)(5)).

Essential Characteristics of Inclusive Schools and Inclusive Schooling

The “Working Forum on Inclusive Schools” (Council for Exceptional Children, 1994) convened by 10 of the leading U.S. education organizations summarized the characteristics of schools identified as successfully implementing the *least restrictive environment* (LRE) principle of the U.S. IDEA legislation, with particular attention on inclusive education or schooling. This forum identified a dozen essential characteristics of inclusive schools implementing quality inclusion. These characteristics are as essential and relevant today as they were in 1994 and can be used as guidelines for educators, administrators, community members, and social activists interested in forwarding quality inclusive schooling opportunities for all children. What is educationally, socially and emotionally healthy for students with special learning needs is educationally, socially and emotionally healthy for all children, their families, and their communities.

A sense of community. An inclusive school has a philosophy and a vision that all children belong and can learn in the mainstream of school and community life. Within an inclusive school, everyone belongs, everyone is accepted, and is supported by peers and the adults in the school.

Visionary Leadership. The administration plays a critical role in an inclusive school by articulating the vision, building consensus for the vision, and actively involving and sharing responsibility with the entire school staff in planning and carrying out the strategies that make the school successful.

High Standards. Within inclusive schools, all children meet high levels of educational outcomes and high standards of performance, which are appropriate to their needs.

Collaborative Partnerships. An inclusive school encourages students and staff to support one another with such strategies as peer tutoring, buddy systems, cooperative learning, team teaching, co-teaching, teacher-student assistance teams, and other collaborative arrangements.

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Changing roles and responsibilities. An inclusive school changes the old roles of teachers and school staff. For example, teachers lecture less and assist more, school psychologists work more closely with teachers in the classroom, and every person in the building is an active participant in the learning process.

Array of services. An inclusive school offers an array of services that are coordinated with the educational staff and designed to meet the needs of learners experiencing various cognitive, physical, and/or emotional challenges.

Partnership with parents. Parents are embraced as equal and essential partners in the education of their children.

Flexible learning environments. Children in an inclusive school are not expected to move in lock steps, but rather they follow their individual paths to learning. Groupings are flexible, and material is presented in concrete, meaningful ways that emphasize participation. Although there is less reliance on programs that pull children out of classrooms, there are still opportunities for students with and without disabilities to receive separate instruction if needed.

Strategies based on research. Research into how people learn is providing new ideas and strategies for teachers, and an inclusive school incorporates those ideas. Universal Design for Learning (UDL), differentiated instruction, cooperative learning, a balanced approach to literacy instruction, interdisciplinary curriculum, authentic assessment of student performance, peer tutoring, direct instruction, reciprocal teaching, learning styles, Multiple Intelligence Theory, social skills training, positive behavior supports, computer-assisted instruction and other forms of technology, and study skill training are some of the practices that have emerged from the latest research and are applied in inclusive schools.

New forms of accountability. An inclusive school relies less on standardized tests, using new [and authentic] forms of accountability and assessment (e.g., portfolios, performance--based assessment) to make sure that each student is progressing towards his or her goal.

Access. An inclusive school ensures that students have access to the general education curriculum and are able to participate in school life by making necessary modifications to buildings and by making available appropriate technology that makes participation possible.

Continuing professional development. An inclusive school enables staff to design and obtain professional development on an ongoing basis so that there is continuous improvement in the knowledge and skills that they can employ to educate diverse students in shared environments and experiences.

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INCLUSION/COLLABORATION PRACTICAL ACTIVITIES FOR SPECIAL LEARNERS

Madalen Sugrue

Inclusion of students with and without disabilities in general public schools and classrooms has become more and more common throughout the United States. According to the U. S. Department of Education (1996), the percentage of students ‘with disabilities served in the

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resource rooms has gradually decreased, and the percentage served in general education classrooms has increased considerably. During the 1990's school districts have made a strong effort to provide more inclusive education (Hobbs & Westling, 1998).

School districts have or are adopting policies which support all children in regular classrooms. Providing a challenging and motivational atmosphere in the regular primary classroom to keep special needs students is one of my primary goals as a special educator who works with regular education teachers in inclusion.

Inclusive schools are possible and necessary for twenty-first century education. This does not mean that every student is educated at all times with peers, but that the responsibility of discovering effective means for all students to learn together is taken seriously. Inclusion involves contemporary means of achieving the ultimate ends of special education: high quality instruction so that students can reach their potential.

Special needs students can sometimes be left out of learning opportunities. The teacher does not have to sacrifice instructional time for the regular class in providing for the special needs students. Creating a positive environment for all students by using strategies for adapting lessons to students with disabilities in the regular class will be discussed in the oral presentation. Trained staff, teacher aides (paraeducators), Individual Education Plans (IEP's), and special teams using the guiding principles of inclusive schools relate to many practical ideas including projects that prepare special needs students for the regular classroom as well as projects preparing them for life outside the school.

Modifying lessons, involving teachers and parents in developing a practical IEP and creating a school environment that fosters self-esteem and readiness for the outside world are all suggestions for creating a learning community (Friend & Bursick 2004).

Some suggestions are:

- a. Promote curriculum integration
- b. Foster more collaboration among teachers
- c. Focus on individual learning needs of students
- d. Engaging students in projects and activities, working in teams, working effectively with small groups to meet a wide range of developmental needs.
- e. Developing learning centers and activity-manuals that involve all students in exploring multiple/content areas. (Friend & Bursick, 2004).

The degree of success of inclusion can be related to several factors, perhaps the most important being teachers' preparation, attitudes, and opportunity for collaboration (Hobbs & Westling date). The greatest of these appears to be effective collaboration among professionals.

Teachers must also develop strategies to facilitate the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms. School personnel must work on effective, cooperative methods to provide appropriate programs to all students.

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The concept of INCLUSION purports that students with special needs can be active, valued, full participating members of a school community in which diversity is viewed as the norm and high-quality education is provided through a combination of meaningful curriculum, effective teaching and necessary supports (Smith, Polloway, Patton, Dowdy 1998). Anything else is not acceptable. Some students need instructional adaptations to master skills and content of some subjects. The teacher may need to also modify the curriculum, shorten written lessons such as the spelling assignments, worksheets and mathematics lessons. Teaming/using small groups, using learning stations, peer tutoring, reciprocal teaching, collaboration, having the student keep a journal, note taking by the student and the adaptation of homework assignments with parent involvement are various suggestions to assist the teacher and student in the inclusion class.

Best practices in the inclusion program are those of classroom “tested” curriculum materials. Primary/elementary teachers are excited to learn of and to use these materials. They want to see acceptable classroom activities to enhance the inclusion process. They seek suggestions for working with young children who are included in the regular classroom curriculum.

The objective of my presentation is to focus on the needs of the student, sharing classroom curriculum tested activities and guiding the student to the next step through successful learning experiences by allowing him/her to use a variety of activities and materials to support the basic needs skills-thus reinforcing a program so very important to inclusion.

Mini-units in science can be fun as well as science experiences in making a *Crystal Garden* or actually doing the activity after the story of *The Little Red House*. Other science activities can include *Hairy Potato Head*, *Shapeless Plastics*, *Floating Liquids*, *Bubbles & Fizzes*, and making a weather windsock - all examples of suggestions for use in the regular classroom in the inclusion process. *Market Math*, *Circus Math*, *Animal Math* and *Monster Multiplication* are examples of quick and effective Math curriculum ideas.

Language Arts and phonics are interesting and fun when *Rainbow Phonics*, *Seasonal Phonics*, *Reading Mysteries*, *Hidden Pictures*, *Mystery Letters* and *Reading Dinosaurs* are used. Art-fun Activities may include *Hand Shaped Art*, *Crayon Mosaic*, *Stained Glass Fish*, *Blossom Bunny*, *Scary-Cary Cat* and *Shake-My PawPuppy* while incorporating social skills in doing a *My Love Keeps Growing* project, making birthday cards, calendars, thank you notes and get well cards for absent class members and adults. Candy airplanes are fascinating and great art projects as well as gifts.

All the above-mentioned experiences are useful and the more we provide for children in the mainstream/inclusion of society, the better we are preparing them for inclusion later in life. Last but not least, the teacher must always remember that inclusion and working together along with commitment and attitude, teamwork, flexibility and collaboration are the most important factors in the special education program.

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MARITAL QUALITY AND FATHERS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE CARE AND EDUCATION OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

Professor Jozefa Bragiel
Przemyslaw Eugeniusz Kaniok

There has been increasing interest in fathers, fathering and fatherhood in the last decades (Featherstone, 2009, p. 1). The last four decades have brought, for a variety of reasons, more attention of research on fathers' involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities (Olsson & Hwang, 2006; Macdonald & Hastings, 2010). One of the aspects of contemporary research on fathers' involvement is its correlation with their marital quality. The correlation between fathers' marital quality and their involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities was discovered by Gelles (1995), Floyd and colleagues (1998). The complexity of the interactive relationship between fathers' marital quality and their involvement requires further study. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine whether fathers involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities is correlated with their marital quality, that is, relationships within the parents' marriage.

This study examined the correlation between marital quality and fathers' involvement among a sample of 243 Polish fathers who remained married and who had at least one child with a disability. This issue was assessed by the two measures, *the Marital Quality Scale* and *the Father*

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Involvement Scale. The Marital Quality Scale, developed by Braun-Galkowska (2007, p. 97) is a standardized measure which evaluates marital quality of spouses. The Scale is divided into two parts. The first part of the Scale consists of 46 items describing activities which in fathers' opinions characterize their marriage. In the second part of the Scale the same 46 items are used to describe which from the activities are the most important for the fathers' marital quality. By completing both lists two subjective views can be obtained: one's own marriage and the image of ideal marital life. By comparing those two lists a quantitative indicator of marital quality can be obtained. The maximum amount of points which can be gained by an individual is 100 points. The minimum amount of points possible to obtain by a parent is equal to 0 points which means that none of the items were chosen by fathers as true for their own marriage. On the basis of the obtained points the fathers were divided in two groups: *fathers satisfied with their marriage* and *fathers unsatisfied with their marriage*. *The Father Involvement Scale* assesses the extent to which fathers perceived their involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities. The Scale, developed by the authors of this paper, consists of five 8-item subscales which relate to the five components of fathers involvement: *interest in the disabled child's life*, *care*, *education*, *rehabilitation* and *active help in achieving by disabled children their independence*. The 40 items on the Scale were developed on the basis of literature and discussions with fathers about their involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities. The measure was tested by the method of 'competent judges'. The validity of the Scales final version, tested with the use of the Cronbach's alpha method, had a satisfactory level (Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$). Each item could be rated by fathers on a 5-point scale, where *one* means *never*, *two* means *rarely*, *three* means *sometimes*, *four* means *often* and *five* means *always*. The final result of this measure is a quantitative indicator, received by adding points obtained by fathers in particular components of the Scale. The maximum amount of points which can be obtained in the Scale is equal to 200 points. 40 points is the minimum number of points which can be obtained in the Scale. In the presented research Spearman's rank calculation coefficients were used to test which components of fathers' involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities are significantly correlated with their marital quality.

Taking under consideration the level of marital quality of the fathers, 107 males belong to the group of fathers unsatisfied with their marriage. This constitutes 44.03% of the entire probe. It is noteworthy that more than a half of fathers (136 men) were satisfied with their marriage (55.97%). The mentioned findings might be supported by the study of Zmich and Floyd (1991). They discovered that fathers of children with disabilities provide information about their marital problems unwillingly, tending to present it in better light than it is in reality. In order to test which components of fathers' involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities are significantly ($p < 0.01$) correlated with their marital quality, Spearman's rank correlation coefficients were calculated. The results of the Spearman's analysis indicated that the most significant levels of correlation ($p < 0.001$) are between fathers' marital quality, their *interest in the child's life* ($r = 0.29$) and his *education* ($r = 0.24$). A statistically significant correlation ($p < 0.01$) is also between fathers' marital quality, their involvement in *rehabilitation* ($r = 0.21$) and *care* ($r = 0.18$) of their child with disabilities. Marital quality is less significantly ($p > 0.05$) correlated with the fifth component of fathers involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities, *active help in achieving independence by their children* ($r = 0.11$).

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The main results of this study can be summarized as follows. Firstly, more than a half of the fathers who have a child with disabilities are satisfied with their marriage. Secondly, fathers' marital quality is significantly ($p < 0.001$) correlated with their involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities in four of its five components: *interest in the child's life, care, education and rehabilitation*. It is unclear why there is no significant correlation between fathers' marital quality and the fifth component of their involvement, *active help in achieving independence by their children*. This might suggest that for some children with disabilities, who are less than eighteen years old or who have already reached the age of eighteen, but who will always be children for their parents, achievement of independence is completely impossible. Therefore fathers, being aware of this fact, may sometimes abandon this kind of action. Our findings clearly indicate that fathers' perception of their marital quality is correlated with the perception of their involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities. We hope that researchers will undertake further investigations, evaluate and improve the empirical findings presented in this paper.

In conclusion, the major implication of this study is that specialists should work more consistently on parents' marital quality because it is correlated with fathers' involvement in the care and education of children with disabilities. This seems to be a very difficult task as specialists concentrate more on helping parents with identifying and eliminating architectural barriers, facilitating their access to doctors or physical therapists than taking into account their marital quality.

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CHALLENGES OF IMMIGRANTS WITH CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES IN MANILA, PHILIPPINES

Oliver T. Belarga
Yasuhide Nakamura

Introduction

In the world today, including some of the most modern and advanced civilizations known to humans, people with disabilities continue to be unserved or underserved. There are more than 600 million people with disabilities in the world. More than three quarters of these people live in developing and poor countries, where poverty is the general rule (UNESCO, 2003).

Special schools for children with intellectual disabilities continue to be an enduring feature of educational provision as the drive towards integrated education has slowed in the face of several structural and ideological obstacles (Male, 1996). Given this circumstance, it is obviously important to make sure that special education is implemented worldwide to full help every child (regardless of race, color and religion) with special needs.

Research Problem and Objectives

Research Problem: What are the issues involved in the integration of foreign students into special education schools in the Philippines, particularly in Manila? The objectives are:

To identify the early intervention programs that children receive from Philippine schools.

To determine the level of knowledge and attitude of these foreign families on the special education, health and child care system in the Philippines.

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To identify the foreign families' problems, explore and analyze these problems in relation to the Philippine context.

Methodology

A mixed method nested design was chosen whereby a small quantitative element was embedded in a predominantly qualitative design. The qualitative element consisted of in-depth interviews with the foreign parents while the quantitative element consisted of analyzing the parents' level of knowledge and level of satisfaction on special education programs received by their children in Philippine institutions. Participants in this study were 28 foreign parents of children with disabilities which. Another criterion for selection was that these children were being served in traditional schools. Sampling method is purposive sampling because the study focuses on foreign families and their children.

This study focused on the perspective of parents. Twenty eight parents completed a questionnaire and ten of these parents participated in an interview. Parents who completed the questionnaires and interviews were referred to as respondents.

Result and Discussion

The result shows that all of the foreign students (28) with disabilities receive special instruction classes. Occupational therapy services (24) follow closely. The other programs that they have in Manila include physical therapy services (23), speech therapy services and family home visits which both have 22 students. Nineteen (19) students are also having psychological services.

The result shows that 36% of the parents answered *neutral* when asked about their satisfaction on the programs received by their children in Philippine schools. Though only 11% of the parents are *very satisfied*, the total percentage of *satisfied* parents is 36%. It should also be noted that 26% are *not satisfied*.

In this study, foreign children with disabilities and their parents identified areas that require improvement in schools. These include addressing negative attitudes through increased disability awareness programs, dealing with the lack of knowledge or understanding through increased special education of teachers and staff, and finally, developing more special education policies for foreigners. Although this study was specific to foreign children with disabilities, many of the concerns of this sample were consistent with previous research examining special education.

Conclusion

To conclude, as the complexity of special education increases, we must concern ourselves with the study of disability, as grounded in a cultural or national medium. Some of the problems, internal conflicts and barriers may relate to a lack of knowledge, education, understanding, or effort on the part of the educational system or staff. From the entire sample in this particular study, the most frequently reported barrier to success was a lack of understanding by teachers and support staff. Also, facilitating good school environments, ensuring the opportunity for much

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learning and social experiences, and providing a nurturing climate were also cited. Without these elements in place, immigrant children who are students with disabilities are denied full participation and integration into Philippine local special education schools and an equitable educational experience.

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AUTHENTIC TEACHING AND LEARNING: MODELING COLLABORATION AND DIFFERENTIATION AT THE GRADUATE LEVEL

Norma S. Blecker
Carol Ann Williams

The inclusion model of instruction that integrates students with disabilities into a general education class has continued to increase in popularity since its introduction in the early 1990's (Austin, 2001; Blecker & Boakes, 2010). This model connotes that the student with disabilities receives his/her academic instruction in the general education classroom. In order for this inclusive environment to be successful, special and general education teachers must be able to collaborate. Additionally, teachers must be skilled in instructional strategies that include whole group, small group and individual instruction; adaptation of teaching materials; modification of curriculum; development of varied assessment tools; knowledge of multiple intelligence theory. All of these skills can be associated with curriculum differentiation theory (Blecker & Boakes, 2010).

Thirty-six graduate students enrolled in two sections of a differentiation course participated in this study. The goals of the differentiation course included the preparation of students for collaboration/co-teaching and differentiation in order to effectively meet the needs of all students within the inclusive classroom. The two instructors of the class sections hoped to prove that an authentic teaching environment would be most beneficial to the graduate students' future implementation of differentiation and collaboration within their own classrooms.

The authentic teaching and learning environment as defined by Knotts, Henderson, Davidson and Swain (2009) includes the active engagement of all learners and the ownership of one's education within a student-centered learning environment. The objective of the instructors was to make the students aware that they were learning in a context that would be similar to where they teach or will be teaching in the future (Knotts, et al., 2009). In order to create such an environment, the two instructors modeled collaborative teaching as they taught the knowledge and skills associated with differentiated instruction. Modeling of desired behaviors enabled the students to participate in the learning community rather than being only spectators (VanDeWeghe, 2006).

According to Alfie Kohn, one must practice "deep modeling" in the classroom. One must go beyond demonstrating a skill to "deeper levels of engagement with ideas, dilemmas; intellectual, emotional, and ethical challenges" (as cited in VanDeWeghe, 2006, p. 85). The two instructors in the study practiced this by not only planning for each lesson cooperatively but also voicing concerns as they reflected continually on each lesson and the challenges encountered. The 36 graduate students experienced the challenges, decisions and planning made within this learning environment.

Just as one pre-assesses their students to determine levels of academic readiness, interests and learning style preferences within a differentiated classroom, the graduate students were assessed at the beginning of the course to determine their knowledge and skill for implementing

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differentiation and collaborative teaching as well as their specific interests and desires for learning the varied strategies associated with curriculum differentiation. Lesson planning during the course of the semester included opportunities for students to work in small groups on specific interests denoted in the pre-assessment survey.

Class lessons incorporated a mixture of whole group, small group and individual instruction. The collaborative models implemented by the two instructors were also varied depending upon the objective of the lesson and the needs of the students. A complementary model was used when the instructors' expertise – one in special education; one in general/gifted education – was required. A supportive model was instituted when specific students required additional help/support. Finally, the classes were taught separately when the need for a smaller community was indicated.

McKenzie (2009) in his survey of pre-service teachers' preparation for collaboration found that teachers become effective collaborators if a collaborative culture is created within their teaching programs. This was the goal of the two instructors within this study as they modeled all facets of collaborative teaching.

At the end of the course, students were asked to complete a survey reflecting on their abilities to implement a differentiated classroom and facilitate collaborative teaching. They were also asked whether the learning environment that was modeled on best practices for collaboration and differentiation aided their understanding of the concepts and prompted the implementation of the teaching strategies in their own classrooms. One hundred percent of the responders agreed that they would incorporate co-teaching, flexible grouping, whole group and small group instruction in their classrooms. Ninety-four percent of the responders wrote that they would be using *essential questions* in their class planning to enable all students to understand the *big picture*.

In the final course evaluation completed by students, the following comments were made in response to the question, "*How did the collaborative teaching in this class aid in your teaching and learning?*"

- *I enjoyed watching the professors work together. They both enhanced the material with their input, and point of view.*
- *The collaborative teaching in this class aided in my teaching and learning by the actual modeling of co-teaching in a real life situation.*
- *It was refreshing to see a collaborative teaching setting in action, not to mention the effectiveness of using this approach!*
- *It was nice to have two professionals in class to answer and assist students. It was also welcomed to have another perspective on work.*

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A STUDY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF PREPAREDNESS AND PRACTICE FOR TEACHING DIVERSE LEARNERS IN INCLUSIVE CLASSROOMS IN SPAIN

María-Cristina Cardona-Moltó
Esther Chiner Sanz
Marcos Gómez Puerta

Historically, teachers have held ambivalent perceptions of student diversity. While they usually recognize the student's right to be different, they perceive such differences as a threat in academic contexts. In attempting to become more responsive practitioners, Tomlinson (2003) suggests educators try to find an appropriate match between the diversity evident in student characteristics and the curriculum to be accessed. But in practice there is little match. Paine (1990) studied teacher orientation towards diversity and identified four levels of orientation: (1) the individual difference approach, (2) the categorical approach, (3) the contextual difference approach, and (4) the pedagogical perspective approach. Paine found that teachers' attitudes most often reflected the individual difference orientation and rarely the pedagogical orientation on diversity. The latter assumes that differences are not simply random or natural variations, and

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they must be understood as having pedagogical implications and consequences for both teaching and learning. Paine's view of diversity in terms of implications offers additional support to the conflict between positive attitudes toward diversity and actual practice.

Given this ambivalence towards student differences, most educators' attitude surveys confirm quite eloquently that educational systems continue to offer uniform responses to diverse needs creating a significant barrier to achieving full participation. Studies show that teachers lack positive views of both student differences and inclusion (Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum, 2000; Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 1996), and that individual and contextual differences (e.g., knowledge, experience, training, support, and kind of school) may influence teacher preparedness and compromise teaching in inclusive environments (Meijer, 2003). These studies, however, have only examined teacher perceptions in specific contexts. Few attempts have been made to study such perceptions in countries other than the US (Barton, & Armstrong, 2007). The present study explored (1) to what extent do teachers in Spain feel prepared to teach diverse students in terms of culture, language, socioeconomic status, religion, gender, political ideology, disability, giftedness/special talent, academic achievement, and student behavior, and (2) what teaching strategies do they use to adapt for student diversity.

Method

We surveyed 225 elementary and secondary regular education teachers (80% return rate) who taught students between the ages of 5 to 18 representing three different regions of the province of Alicante, Spain, on their skills and practices to teach diverse students in inclusive classrooms. Their ages ranged from 21-64 ($M = 38.55$, $SD = 9.48$). Thirty percent were male and 70% female. The sample was drawn from three elementary and three secondary schools (convenience sample) and was ethnically homogeneous (100% Spaniards). Teaching experience ranged from 0 to 39 years ($M = 11.83$, $SD = 9.33$). The respondents indicated a considerable level of student diversity in their respective schools: $M = 2.66$ ($SD = 1.65$). The highest prevalence of diversity level was for academic achievement ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.01$) and the lowest for disability ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 1.03$).

The instrument used was an adaptation of the original version of the Perceptions and Attitudes towards Diversity Scale (Cardona, 2005). This instrument contains six sets of questions: (1) Prevalence of diversity in school (9 items), (2) School sensitivity to student differences (9 items), (3) Teacher attitudes towards student diversity (9 items), (4) Teacher preparedness to teach diverse school populations (9 items), (5) Use of specific strategies to adapt for student diversity (9 open-ended questions), and (6) Recommendations from schools and universities to better deal with student differences (2 open-ended questions). The participants in this study responded to questions (1), (2) (3), and (4) using a 5-item Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *very little* to 5 = *very much*, or from 1 = *rejection* to 5 = *acceptance*. Based on the results of an exploratory factor analysis with the first four set of questions, we created four subscales for further analyses: (1) Prevalence of diversity, (2) School sensitivity to student differences, (3) Teacher attitudes towards student diversity, and (4) Teacher competency to teach diverse school populations. These factors explained 46.33% of the variance. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of these subscales was .720, .872, .862, .839, respectively. Doctoral students of the Faculty of Education

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assisted in the distribution of the survey after permission was obtained from school principals. All the teaching staff in schools was asked to complete the survey. Each copy was accompanied by a small introduction explaining the study and requesting teacher participation. Descriptive analysis was used to estimate the levels of diversity in schools, school sensitiveness, attitudes and competency of teachers who took part in the survey. Content analyses of open-ended questions (use of specific strategies to adapt for student diversity) were also conducted.

Results

Teachers in the sample perceived their school as diverse ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 1.10$) and sensitive to student differences ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.00$). The mean ratings across respondent groups, situated above the scale's midpoint indicated that student diversity is quite prevalent in schools and that schools have a strong perception of sensitivity. For prevalence of diversity, the average scores for all nine dimensions of diversity were 2.66 ($SD = 1.06$). The highest ratings were for academic achievement ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.01$) and socioeconomic status ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.05$); and the lowest, for disability ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 1.03$) and language ($M = 2.03$, $SD = 1.14$). For school sensitiveness, the average scores were 3.55 ($SD = 1.05$). Gender ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .93$) and student behavior ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.02$) were the dimensions that received the highest ratings, while giftedness/special talent ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.30$) and religion ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 1.26$) received the lowest.

Teachers' attitudes towards student diversity were indicative of tolerance ($M = 4.54$, $SD = .81$). In fact, more than 90% of respondents (average of all nine dimensions) self-reported high levels of acceptance toward student diversity. Teachers' ratings of their overall preparedness to teach students with SEN were more mixed, however. The average mean on this subscale was 2.90 ($SD = .99$). This suggests that a considerable number of teachers (44%) felt under-prepared to teach students with diverse needs. Those who felt under-prepared were significantly ($p < .05$) more likely to feel uncertain about how to teach students who differ in disability, giftedness/special talent, academic achievement, and student behavior.

In examining the kind of specific teaching strategies teachers used to adapt for student differences, respondents reported the use of a variety of strategies directed to create a great deal of flexibility in their classrooms. For example, to adapt for culture, some of them mentioned that they "incorporate student backgrounds into the lessons"; language: "choose histories that appeal to more than one language"; socioeconomic status: "build relationships"; religion: "adhere to religious customs in relation to school activities"; gender: write about "The woman I admire the most"; disability: "work with what the student can do and interest him/her"; giftedness: "have extra projects ready, more creativity assignments"; academic achievement: "reward any and all gains, not just A's & B's"; student behavior: "connect with individual students."

Conclusions and Educational Implications

The aim of this study was to analyze teacher perceptions of preparedness and practices responding to student diversity in a sample of teachers from Spain. Although respondent attitudes toward student diversity clearly favour inclusion, perceptions of competence to teach

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diverse students were low. However, variations existed when such perceptions were broken down into the nine dimensions of student diversity addressed in this study. Quite often respondents reported the use of teaching strategies consistent with inclusive principles, but conflicts between attitudes and practice appeared in the data. Teachers' responses to open-ended questions were very low reflecting reservation when asked about their teaching or perhaps inexperience or lack of knowledge and/or skills. These findings are consistent with other studies (e.g., Paine, 1990; Scruggs, & Mastropieri, 1996) indicating that there is a big difference between teacher attitudes, skills, and action. Further research should incorporate in-class observations to determine how attitudes and teacher preparedness may influence teacher classroom practice, and, as a result, insight will be gained on how to transform teacher attitudes into action.

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RESEARCH DESIGN, SAMPLING, AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS FOR SPECIAL POPULATIONS

George Chitiyo
Morgan Chitiyo
Aggry Tongai Musiyarira

Determining Sample Size

Sample size depends on a number of parameters which include the size of the population to be sampled, the variability in the dependent variable, the level of significance desired for a particular statistical test (α), the power desired for the statistical test ($1-\beta$), the effect size to be detected, and resource constraints, among other things. A table of recommended sample sizes can be found from Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) paper *Determining Sample Size for Research Activities*. The list at the end of this paper also has some links that will be helpful in sample size calculation.

Because special populations are usually small, for example those dealing with special needs students, the most commonly used research design is the single subject research design. In single subject research, treatments are administered individually to every single participant in the study. The number of participants in a single subject study can range from one to several.

Statistical Analysis Methods

There is usually no major problem when samples are sizeable, and treatments have been administered in groups. The methods of statistical analysis include t-tests/z-tests, regression analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), or more advanced multivariate and multilevel techniques. The choice of test largely depends on the type of research problem in question. Researchers need to choose their statistical method and number of independent variables in light of the size of the sample. For example a ratio of 15 subjects will be recommended for every independent variable in a multiple regression. For a more detailed treatment of this issue of sample size to number of independent variables, we recommend Tabachnik and Fidell (1996), and Mertler and Vannatta (2010).

Usually, when dealing with special populations, samples are often small. Under such

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circumstances, researchers may use non-parametric methods of data analysis (such as the Mann-Whitney U test, Wilcoxon T test, Kruskal-Wallis H test, Friedman's test etc.). In addition, non-parametric tests can be used if assumptions for parametric tests have been seriously violated (e.g. normality, homogeneity of variance etc.). One has to realize though that non-parametric tests have less statistical power (and hence a higher probability of committing a type II error) compared to parametric tests.

Reporting the Methods and Results

Before researchers report the findings from their study, it is very important to explicitly describe how they sampled their participants, and to explain the data analysis procedure in detail. This should be followed by the tests of assumptions for that particular statistical test (e.g. normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, sphericity, homogeneity of regression slopes, etc.). Quoting Huck (2008), "Those researchers who talk about (and possibly test) the assumptions...deserve credit for being careful in their use of [that particular] inferential technique" (p. 281). Unless the assumptions are met, or the test is robust to violation of those assumptions, the reader has justification to mistrust the results of that analysis. Justification for the choice of statistical procedure must be provided except if it is inconceivable that the reader can have doubts about the legitimacy of the statistical technique used.

Researchers need also identify and highlight the threats to internal and external validity of their study so that readers are cautioned about the extent to which they might use the findings from the study. It is worth noting that single subject studies usually have significant external validity threats.

Controlling for the Experimentwise Error Rate in Statistical Analysis

Each time one runs a test on their data, they incur a certain risk of making a type I error. Students (and many seasoned researchers) usually overlook (or are unaware of) this fact and they go ahead and conduct several tests on the same data using the same alpha level. This leads to an inflation of the type I error risk. The Bonferonni adjustment technique can be used to obtain a "protected alpha level" by dividing the desired significance level by the number of tests to be run.

The Post-Hoc Fallacy and Statistical vs. Practical Significance

Social science research is generally weak in establishing cause and effect relationships. Because there are many variables that are going on at the same time as the "treatment" variables, rival explanations can only be minimized but not extinguished. There are several ways of controlling for confounding variables (e.g. randomization, matching, blocking, analysis of covariance etc.), and unless a researcher takes steps to control for the potential effects of the confounds, they have very limited ability to infer cause-and-effect. Researchers often carelessly use the words "the effect of", or "the impact of," "the results prove that X causes Y." Regardless of the magnitude of the relationship or effect size, causality should be treated very cautiously. Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005) give a good treatment of this subject.

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Researchers should also be careful to not make inferences without conducting hypothesis testing. Often people make general statements about the population after only computing descriptive statistics and doing graphical displays of their sample data. This is not correct practice, and it cannot be overemphasized that statistical inference is only possible when hypothesis testing has been conducted.

When a result is found to be statistically significant, it does not translate into being useful. Oftentimes highly statistically significant outcomes are associated with very minuscule effect sizes. Novice researchers cannot tell the difference between the two. If people want to attach practical significance to their results, they need to also report the effect size, and many statistical software packages can provide measures of effect size. For a more detailed treatment of effect sizes, we recommend Valentine and Cooper (2003)'s *Effect Size Substantive Interpretation Guidelines: Issues in the Interpretation of Effect Sizes* and Fern and Monroe (1996)'s *Effect-Size Estimates: Issues and Problems in Interpretation*.

Resources

In addition to the references, this section consists of a list of useful resources pertaining to research design and basic statistics.

A guide to free statistical software: <http://statpages.org/javasta2.html>

Basics of research design and statistics: www.socialresearchmethods.net

Choosing between parametric and non-parametric tests:
<http://www.graphpad.com/www/book/choose.htm>

Computing various statistical tests online, including sample size determination:
<http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/Business-stat/otherapplets/SampleSize.htm>

Free electronic textbook: <http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/>

Fern, F. E., & Monroe, K. L. B. (1996). Effect-size estimates: Issues and problems in interpretation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 23, 89–105.

Free statistical tools on the web: <http://gsociology.icaap.org/methods/statontheweb.html>

Huck, S. W. (2008). *Reading statistics and research* (5th ed.). Boston, MA. Allyn & Bacon.

Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.

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Mertler, Craig A. & Vannatta A. (2005). *Advanced and multivariate statistical methods*, 3rd edition, Glendale, CA. Pyczak Publishing.

Sample size determination online: <http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html>

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**THE EFFECT OF INDUCEMENT ON PARENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL
ACTIVITIES: A CASE OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS IN SOME
SELECTED SCHOOLS IN MALAWI**

Victor Yobe Mgomozulu

Introduction

Poor parent participation in school activities is one of the major problems facing public schools in many parts of the world, including Malawi (Elliot, Hufton, Willis, & Illushin, 2005). More specifically, poor parent participation contravenes the belief that greater parent participation enhances school effectiveness (Lemmer & vanWyk, 2004). There seems to be some inconsistency between poor parent participation in school activities and desired school effectiveness.

Problem Formulation and Aim

Experiences in Malawi indicate that some parents are not willing to participate in school activities such as school development projects (Ministry of Education, 2002). Although poor parent participation in school activities is observed in both the socioeconomically wealthy and poor communities, the phenomenon is more extensive amongst the poor communities. Kaiser and Delaney (as cited in The effects of poverty, n.d.) highlight poverty as a real concern in that parent participation in school activities is indeed low amongst the poor communities. This does not necessarily indicate a lack of interest. It reflects the effect of poverty.

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The research mainly focuses on the perceptions of school principals on the level of parent participation in school activities and how it can be improved if the level is unsatisfactory. In view of the above, the following research questions were posed:

What is the level of parent participation in school activities?

What could be the role of inducement as a tool for enhancing greater parent participation in school activities?

The research questions were investigated by means of literature research and empirical investigation. In brief, the research reported in this article had the aim of exploring if providing inducement to parents could improve participation in school activities.

Literature Review

Experiences of Parent Participation in School Activities in Socioeconomically Wealthy and Poor Communities

There are several causes cited for poor parent participation in school activities in both the socioeconomically wealthy and poor communities. For example, parents may be unable to participate in school activities because of long distance to the venues, among other reasons (Lemmer & vanWyk, 2004). In a study conducted in Colorado State of the USA, the differences in the level of participation in school activities were related to the socioeconomic status of a community. Schools located in wealthier communities had high parent attendance to school activities. On the other hand, schools in poorer communities experienced poor parent attendance to school activities (Cohen-Vogel, Goldring, & Smrekar, 2010). As observed by Kaiser and Delaney (as cited in The effects of poverty, n.d.), this reflects issues related to poverty such as lack of disposable time and resources.

To deal with the situation of poor parent participation the teachers at Parker School in Colorado embarked on outreach programme of transporting parents who could not come to school activities. The subsequent meetings registered better parent participation because an inducement of transport was offered. Other teachers believe that providing a child-care centre where children, such as the special-needs children, will be cared for as parents attend school activities could induce many parents (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2010). McGee (as cited in The effects of poverty, n.d.) recognizes that what may induce the socioeconomically poor parents may not appeal to the wealthy parents. Bearing this in mind, he believes that providing food or soft drinks could induce some of the poor parents to participate in school activities.

Perceptions of Inducement Value

A study by Preuss and Kebernik (2007) illustrates that there is a connection between inducement and commitment to a task. They further observed that there is a close relationship between the type of inducement and the level of commitment to a given task. They noticed that one's behavior can be predicted based on their perception of the value of inducements. In support, the Theory of Expectancy predicts that individuals will engage in behavior that they perceive as eventually leading to valued rewards (Wang & Lim, 2008). Although the Theory of Expectancy

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refers to rewards received after the task is completed, the experiences of Cohen-Vogel et al. and McGee reported above demonstrate that it equally applies to inducement given before the task is started.

The theory is based on the following assumptions (Lussier, 2005):

Behavior is the individual's decision; People have different needs, desires and goals; and People make behavior decisions based on the type and quality of inducement. "Valance" is one aspect of the theory that is closely related to the notion of inducement. Lussier (2005) considers it as referring to the value a person places on inducement. Generally, the higher the value of inducement, the better the chance of participation in and commitment to the task.

In short, the literature suggests that if parents can see inducement they consider valuable the probability that they will participate in and remain committed to school activities will be high.

Research Design and Methodology

A qualitative study was determined as appropriate because data would be collected instantly and that clarification could be sought. Interviews with secondary school principals were conducted.

Population and Sample

The study involved secondary schools in urban and rural areas of central and northern regions of Malawi. Fifteen schools were sampled based on convenience.

Results and Discussion

Sixty four per cent of the school principals interviewed indicated that parent participation in school activities was poor. A high majority of the principals (86%) felt that inducement, as a tool for promoting greater parent participation in school activities, was essential. The principals (82%) also thought that providing inducement to the socioeconomically poor parents would be cheaper than to do so to the wealthy parents. They underscored that lack of resources could undermine implementation of the idea.

Conclusion

Socioeconomically poor parents face many challenges that could limit participation in school activities. Worse still, such parents with special-needs children may be facing even greater challenges with regard to participating in school activities. Because the participation of parents is critical for the effectiveness of schools, it is crucial that school authorities should explore ways of providing appropriate inducement to, not only the socioeconomically poor parents, but even more deservedly, to those with special-needs children.

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RESEARCHING HIV/AIDS WITH ADOLESCENT LEARNERS USING PARTICIPATORY VISUAL METHODOLOGIES: THE MALAWI EXPERIENCE

Dominic Mapopa Ndengu

Aims of the Study

This study sought to understand how adolescent learners view their own vulnerability to HIV/AIDS by exploring their understanding and experiences with regards to the pandemic. The key research question was: How do adolescent learners understand their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS?

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Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The study is situated within an eco-systemic framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The eco-systemic framework of human development is based on the understanding of interdependence and inter-relationship between the developing person and the environment (Huitt, 1995). This approach was found to be suitable because as Fraser and Galinsky (1997) as cited in Normand (2007) suggest, factors that predispose an individual to risk are best understood from an ecological perspective. It allowed for a holistic approach to the study of vulnerability of adolescents to HIV/AIDS within the context of their environment.

Research Design and Methodology

This was a qualitative, phenomenological study using participatory approach and guided by an interpretivist paradigm. An important aspect of interpretive research is to try to make meaning of the phenomenon, such as that of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS from the perspective of the person being studied; in this case adolescent learners. Using qualitative methods provided me with an opportunity to gain a contextual understanding of adolescents' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS through their own constructions. The study involved 44 adolescent learners in the age range of 15 to 19 years, purposively selected from four schools and equally spread by gender. This arrangement ensured a fair distribution of the participants by gender for more balanced data. Among the data generation methods used was the photovoice.

Photovoice as a Method of Research and its Relevance to this Study

The photovoice method was meant to address the research question in accessing adolescents' understanding of their construction of what is and is not a risky environment, by taking photographs. Photovoice is a participatory method developed by Wang (1992) that allows participants to give voice to their experiences through visual images which allow us to understand how people make meaning or construct what matters (cited in Royce et al., 2006). According to Wang, as cited in Pies and Parathasarathy (2004, p.2), photovoice is based on the premise that "what experts think is important may not match what people at the grassroots think is important". The method takes cognisance of the fact that [adolescents] have the ability to represent their thoughts in a manner they choose (Galvaan, 2008). Through the use of the photovoice, ownership and control of the material generated were in the hands of the research participants. In this way, the method engaged my research participants in an active process of knowledge production (Flick, 2006).

Organization and Management of the Photovoice Method

Participants were put in groups of five, with two groups in each school and were provided with simple "point and shoot" cameras. The dilemma in photovoice as Denzin (1986), observes is how to get information onto the film and how to get it off the film (cited in Flick, 2006). I therefore, provided participants with the following prompt, which guided them in getting information onto the film: "*Take photographs of situations where you could consider yourself at risk or not at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS*". Before they went out to take photographs, I taught

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them how to use the camera and about the ethics of photograph taking. As they took photographs, participants recorded details of each photograph in a photovoice journal, including the problems they encountered. After processing the films the photographs were returned to participants for elicitation.

During photo elicitation each participant chose a photograph that best depicted the response to the prompt and added a written text, a process known as photo elicitation (Wood, 2008). The photo elicitation was guided by the following questions: “What does the photograph mean to you?” (Mitchell, de Lange, Moletsane, Stuart & Buthelezi 2005, p. 265) and “With your photograph, what information can you convey to others about adolescents’ vulnerability to HIV/AIDS infection”? (Royce et al., 2006, p. 83). Participants pasted the photograph on a paper, wrote a brief description of what the photograph was about including an explanation of its message and then assigned a caption to it.

Critical Reflections Over the Photovoice as a Research Methodology

The photovoice proved to be an alternative avenue for adolescents to express their understanding of HIV/AIDS, which in normal circumstances the participants rarely discuss.

Two criticisms are levelled against photovoice as a research methodology though. One of them is that the photovoice method raises serious ethical issues especially around anonymity of research participants. For example, Karlsson (2008) warns that recognisable identification markers on a photograph carry the risk of harm to participants. One way going around this is through by cropping or erasure of the image but Karlsson (2008) asserts that such practice is tantamount to betraying the viewer because it reshapes the image according to the bias of the photographer which is itself unethical. In this study I opted to leave the photograph as they were but emphasised the need for participants to obtain permission from the human photographic subject before taking any photograph. Participants were also given the right to remove photographs which they did not feel comfortable with. The other criticism has been its lack of academic integrity and reliability. This can be counter argued that photovoice, as a research methodology, provided a unique opportunity for adolescents to critically reflect on what images were captured, and what could be learned from them regarding the phenomenon of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS which other methods could not so easily capture (Karlsson, 2008). It is further argued that photographs and words do not express the same thing, nor can they substitute for each other (Pink, 2007). So, what words fail to express, photographs do, which I call the “*hidden reality*”.

Data Analysis

The first level of analysis for the photovoice was done in the field where photographs were critically and reflectively analysed by the participants themselves. The second level analysis was done by me using thematic analysis (Ryan and Bernard, 2003) where photo elicitations were coded, categorised and themes created through the process of reduction. Finally, interpretation showing how they answered my research question was done.

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Results of the Study

The following were the results of this study addressing the aim of the study and presented by themes, categories, and sub categories that emerged from my analysis.

Theme 1: Adolescents' Awareness of their Vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

Categories

Awareness that adolescents are a more vulnerable group than others
Awareness of what constitutes a safe or unsafe/risky environment
Awareness of how one can contract or avoid contracting HIV/AIDS
Awareness of the dangers/consequences of contracting HIV/AIDS

Theme 2: Adolescent Perception of HIV/AIDS Risky Situations

Categories

Internal factors
School-related contexts
Home and Society providing un safe environment

Conclusion: Understanding Adolescents' Vulnerability to HIV/AIDS

Drawing from the ecosystemic perspective, it emerged from this study that an understanding of adolescent learners' vulnerability to HIV/AIDS should be viewed first from the individual level, where knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs are crucial in determining behaviour, and then from the interpersonal level, comprising the family, peers, school, community and society at large, as other major determinants of their behaviour.

Methodologically, this study further lends support to the fast growing body of knowledge about photovoice as a participatory research method, particularly with adolescents. My findings support the view by de Guzman (2001), that participatory visual methodology helps participants to analyse their own vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. "This research served as the eyes, ears and voice of the participants of the research." (Royce et al.2006, p.81)

This is what one adolescent had to say about their participation in the research through the photovoice:

"This is only one way we young people are talking our minds, because like here we don't have any means that we youth can rely on to speak out so that the government can get the ideas, so only the bigger people and the rich ones speak about and AIDS." (Female participant during focus group discussion)

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PREPARATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN TANZANIA: ROLE OF SEBASTIAN KOLOWA UNIVERSITY COLLEGE (SEKUCO)

Paul Oka Nwaogu

Introduction

The government of Tanzania recognizes and practices education for all including education of people with disabilities. There are integrated public schools for people with disabilities as well as private schools managed by private religious organizations and NGOs. Since independence,

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preparations of specialist teachers has been done locally by Teacher Training Colleges that produce certificate and diploma holders who teach in many primary and special schools across the nation. Patandi Teachers College has been responsible for this local training. However, specialist teachers with degrees were trained outside the country. A revolution in teacher preparation and training came in 2007 when the government approved the establishment of Sebastian Kolowa University College of Tumaini University with the mandate to train specialist teachers at the degree level in Tanzania. This University College is a private institution owned by the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania (ELCT), Eastern Diocese. The College in December 2010 produced its first graduates in four areas of disability-cognitive, hearing, visual, and speech and language.

Rationale

In 1995 the government came up with an Education and Training Policy. This policy was formulated to improve quality education and training that has as its main objectives increased enrolments, equitable access, quality improvement, optimum utilization of facilities and operational efficiency in the system (Wepukhulu, 2002). Furthermore, the national priorities focus on Education for All as stipulated in the 1990 Jomtien World Conference. This conference recognized the provision of education as a basic human right. The government is committed to this concept of universal primary education in order to achieve education for all. On the ground there is a shortage of trained personnel to give fillip to the realization of education for all as well as pursue the implementation of inclusive education.

Role of Sebastian Kolowa University College

The University's mandate is to train high level personnel in special needs education who will work in public integrated schools, special schools, private schools and those schools established by the NGOs. The establishment of SEKUCo became strategic in teacher training schemes in order to elevate the competences of teachers, enhance their professional growth in pedagogy and curriculum development as they affect management of students in both inclusive and segregated classrooms. SEKUCo will be in a position to train a high level teacher corps whose future presence in the educational system will be responsible for the replacement of certificate and diploma holders. The role of SEKUCo in training special education teachers locally will indeed precipitate a drastic decrease in the country's budget for overseas training of specialist teachers.

Graduates from SEKUCo

In December 2010, the College graduated its first products numbering 132 in four areas of disability-cognitive, hearing, speech and language, and visual. Each student combined one disability area with a teaching subject-English, Kiswahili or Mathematics. Including more teaching subject areas will be effected in the next academic year even though Economics, Geography, History and Political Science are now being studied. The new subjects will be Biology, Chemistry and Physics.

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Student Enrolment

The student population is growing tremendously. It has hit over one a thousand students. With this growth in view, partnership with active outside organizations becomes a desideratum. We, therefore, solicit for more volunteers from IASE members for the coming academic year which begins on September 10, 2011.

Partnership

Since its inception in 2007, SEKUCo has maintained strong partnership with outside universities and organizations. This is premised on the understanding that collaboration with outside partners will help strengthen the base of our teacher training policy. One such trustworthy and sincere organization is the International Association of Special Education (IASE). Through this cooperation, SEKUCo has been able to secure the services of volunteer professionals who come to work for a semester or even longer in the institution. Some of these volunteers come from the United States and Canadian universities. Others are retirees but they are members of IASE. IASE-SEKUCo cooperation is solid and it is on track. It is expected that with such cooperation in place, more and more volunteers will be encouraged by IASE to come to SEKUCo to continue with the invaluable work of ensuring that special education teachers are trained in Tanzania to help implement government inclusive education policy in its school system.

Conclusion

There is a lot to look forward to in order to push ahead the enormous aspirations of SEKUCo as a fountain for training high level human resources in Tanzania. In future more teaching subjects will be included in the curriculum in order to fortify our base for ensuring that the curriculum of the public schools is adequately covered. At the moment, these subjects are taught in combination with one disability area as already mentioned-Economics, English language, Geography, History, Mathematics, and Political Science. The expansion of the college curriculum will include Biology, Chemistry and Physics as teaching subjects. SEKUCO has already started making an impact on the society in Tanzania. Its first products are found in many sectors of the economy. Many graduates went back to their former employers in the primary, secondary, and private special schools. Some are working with NGOs like Youth with Disabilities Community Programme (YDCP) based in Tanga and at the National Society for the Deaf found in Dar es Salaam. It is to be noted that an alumnus is now the Principal of the prestigious Magamba Secondary School in Lushoto District where he has started implementing the inclusive education policy of the government.

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TEACHING INITIAL FRACTION IDEAS TO STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS: BARRIERS AND POSSIBILITIES

Ms. Rebecca Tock Kuan Seah

On Becoming Numerate

Fraction ideas are some of the most complex mathematical concepts students encounter in their school years. It is a multifaceted construct, underpinning many numeracy activities and the development of further mathematical understanding. Secure understanding of these ideas is a vital part of being numerate. Despite their importance, fraction ideas remain a key challenge for many students and are the least studied, both within mathematics and special education contexts. Little is known about how students with special educational needs learn fraction idea concepts and the sources of their difficulties. Moreover, a severe teacher shortage in Australia often resulted in schools having to employ teachers without special education and mathematics training. Accordingly, continuing professional development is key to improving practice. Sadly, research in special education teacher education is almost nonexistent (Chard, 2004), fanned by ‘a prevailing assumption that teachers learn most of what they need to know about how to teach before they enter the classroom’ (Elmore, 2002, p. 4). The nature of the mathematics combined with a lack of research on both teacher professional development and on how students with SEN learn mathematics, may contribute to barriers for students becoming numerate.

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An Interpretive Framework for Teaching and Learning

This paper presents an interpretive theoretical framework for studying teacher and student learning within the social context of a classroom. It involves the interplay of (I) the development of instructional activities and (II) the ongoing research on the effectiveness of those activities.

I. Developing Initial Fraction Ideas Teaching Sequence

Using Booker et al. (2010) connected, conceptual understanding of learning mathematics framework, the instructional teaching sequence focuses on systematically linking an interconnected triad of materials, language and symbols. Language plays an important part in the development of mathematical ideas. Young children acquire their initial number understanding through playing, counting objects and reciting nursery rhymes. Gradually, they come to understand the concept of “oneness” as a representation of quantity rather than kind. Developing any mathematical concept then begins with providing full meaning of number words to match the objects, and later linking it with the symbols that represent them. Since fraction ideas are not naturally occurring in children’s daily experiences, materials and learning models have to be carefully introduced to help students build a mental representation of these fraction ideas. Children’s early encounters with fraction ideas involve sharing of things such as cutting a cake for enough people during a meal. However, they tend to focus on the size or number of the parts (i.e. one for you, one for me, etc) rather than seeing them as parts of a larger whole. Moreover, a number such as 3 fourths can be named in numerous ways such as $\frac{3}{4}$ is also 0.75, 75%, $\frac{6}{8}$, 9 twelfths and so on. A lack of secure mental representation of the fraction concept often resulted in students making erroneous mistakes such as considering 3.41 to be greater than 3.5 or believe that $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{4} = \frac{4}{6}$. Essentially, fractions are mathematical ways of dealing with equal parts of things, of collections of items, of dealing with rate and ratio. Fractions are numbers that exist among the whole set of numbers rather than a combination of two whole numbers. A full understanding of the fraction concepts is thus a prerequisite for understanding decimal fractions, common fractions and per cents.

II. Researching Teacher Professional Development

Classrooms are messy environments with multiple variables at play concurrently. Effective teaching practices are developed through a process of design, analysis and redesign. Each instructional activity is being scrutinized according to the interplay between the social and psychological perspectives as they are enacted in the classroom. The social perspective sees classroom processes as communal and collective, symbolic interactions between varies elements (Blumer, 1969). The psychological perspective views cognition as distributed, accomplished through people, environments and situations, rather than possessed by individuals (Pea, 1993). Adapted from the work of Cobb and Yackel (1996) and Borko and Putnam (1996), this interplay between the social and psychological perspectives is divided into three micro-cultures:

The classroom social norms, the joint construction of regularities in communal or collective classroom activity. Such norms are enabled and constrained by students’ beliefs about own role, others’ roles and the general nature of learning as well as the teacher’s pedagogical knowledge and beliefs about general instructional strategies and classroom management.

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The sociomathematical norms are mathematical practices operating in the classroom. They are influenced by individual students' mathematical beliefs and values as well as the teacher's subject matter knowledge and beliefs. The latter moves beyond the teacher's knowledge on facts, terms and procedures of mathematics. It focuses on the negotiation and joint construction of mathematical ideas through the organization of and connections among ideas, as well as ways of thinking and arguing.

The classroom mathematical practices are taken-as-shared ways of communication established by the classroom community. They reflect students' mathematical conceptions and activity as well as the teacher's pedagogical content knowledge and beliefs in the overarching conception of the purpose for the lesson, the needs and learning styles of individual students, knowledge of curriculum and curricular materials as well as the strategies and representations for teaching particular topics.

Teachers with limited training and students with special educational needs often have many misconceptions and anxieties about the teaching and learning of mathematics. The three classroom micro-cultures enable researchers to pinpoint particular aspects of the social norms and belief systems that need intervention and effectuate appropriate remediation.

Concluding Comment

This framework represents students and the teacher's mathematical learning journey as social, rather than psychological and individualistic practices. Seeing learning as an adaptive reorganization in a complex system always mediated by human interaction allows a greater focus on ways that will improve student learning in both inclusive and remedial classrooms. Its value lies in its ability to capture the dynamic interactions between various elements in the classroom, thereby bridging theory practice gaps.

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HOCUS FOCUS: THE USE OF MAGIC TRICKS FOR EMOTIONAL, BEHAVIORAL, AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Kevin Spencer

Magic in the Classroom

The Art of Illusion has the ability to capture and hold the attention of people of all ages. Children are especially intrigued by the seeming impossibility of a magic trick. One of the most important factors for achieving success for all students is to engage them in the Creative Process involving the three modalities of learning – visual, aural, and kinesthetic. Incorporating magic tricks into the learning process is a powerful means of drawing on these multiple learning modalities allowing students to learn facts and concepts they can see, touch, manipulate, and talk about. Robert Marzano writes that many studies support the idea that learning is most effective when it is social and collaborative (Marzano, 2007). Integrating simple magic tricks into classroom instruction can have a positive impact on self-esteem, behavior, and social cognition with even the most challenging students.

Background

Use of Magic in an Educational Setting

An accomplished magic performer has a deep intuition for and understanding of human attention and awareness. Since 2008, cognitive researchers have been studying the effects of magic and illusion on perception, attention, and awareness. By applying the knowledge of magicians, researchers can create more cognitive and visual illusions for exploring the neural bases of these attributes. These techniques could lead to diagnostic and treatment methods for individuals suffering from certain cognitive deficits like Alzheimer's disease, ADHD, and Autism (Martinez-Conde & Macknik/Barrow Institute, 2008).

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, a number of education researchers evaluated the effectiveness of using magic tricks on students with learning differences. Key findings from this research include:

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Magic tricks offer a creative means for stimulating the senses in special education students (Frith and Walker, 1983).

Magic tricks provide a strategy for building teamwork and self-esteem in children with Emotional Behavior Disorders (S.A. Broome, 1989).

Magic tricks enhance the learning experience and encourage creative problem-solving skills, observational technique, and critical thinking (McCormack, 1985).

Magic tricks in an educational setting can help students with learning differences attain higher self-esteem and self-confidence (Ezell, 2003).

Empowering students to feel good about themselves and their accomplishments can increase their motivation to try harder, take more risks, continue to build their self-confidence, and achieve self-efficacy. Students who feel good about themselves find it easier to feel good about the things around them – at home and at school. Children need to be taught to recognize their abilities to accomplish more than what they might realize. The more they believe in these abilities, the more apt they are to be motivated to attempt new things and become successful in those endeavors. Bunker (1991) found that "children acquire self-confidence and self-esteem as a result of successful experiences." And Cast and Burke (2002) stated that these qualities could be used as a resource when children hit stressful moments in their lives, including stressful academic moments.

All of the above referenced research confirms that children can benefit - academically and functionally - by learning and performing magic tricks as a means to strengthen the overall learning process, develop a healthy self-esteem, provide a foundation for self-determination, and achieve self-efficacy. In addition, there are several educational factors for student growth that can be attended to by utilizing magic tricks. For instance, magic tricks may be used to build rapport by providing a simple means for the teacher to connect to the student, to remove boundaries, and to provide comfort zones (Gilroy 1998). Other factors include the skill of reframing, interpersonal skills, metaphor, and group cohesion.

The Hocus Focus[™] Project

Hocus Focus[™] is a student-centered, experiential-based educational approach that utilizes the art of magic (magic tricks) in the context of empowering an empathetic, professional educator/student relationship with the fundamental goal of student growth and development. It is a systematic approach by which students learn to focus and accomplish specific goals and objectives by learning magic tricks – simple tricks at first and then more complex tricks as they progress – and then exploring the benefits of each one.

Findings

Recent research (Noll, 2010; Walkenhorst, 2010) confirms that integrating magic tricks into core curriculum can engage the student and excite them about the learning process. The findings from these studies point to numerous benefits including student improvement in the following areas:

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On-task and Participation Behaviors

When integrating magic tricks into the educational process, students became motivated to learn the lesson and to engage in purposeful conversation. They relied on each other's thinking to enrich their own understanding and construct meaning.

Leadership and socialization skills

Students demonstrated confidence in social situations and became more willing to talk with other students. The more reserved students gained confidence in their ability to speak in front of the class. The majority of students believed they were able to work together more effectively in a group and demonstrated leadership skills by taking the initiative to assist their classmates.

Positive Peer Relationships, Peer-mentoring, and Peer collaboration

Traditional instruction has focused on individual learning that isolates the student from social interaction. Magic activities provided students of different abilities with an opportunity to work in groups (Cooperative Learning) – a natural desire to find dynamic interaction with others. This process allowed students to seek social relationships in an appropriate way with an emphasis on belonging, being recognized, listened to, and noticed. One researcher (M.B.Noll, 2010) noted that three students who would not typically be friends worked collaboratively on reading the lessons, presenting the academic connection to the class, and performing the magic trick.

Self-determination Skills and Self-esteem

Magic tricks provide an excellent basis for problem solving, frustration tolerance, and task follow through. There is an inextricable connection between self-esteem and achievement. Teaching magic tricks in the context of an educational activity can allow students to experience academic successes as well as change the way they believe others perceive them and help them with social acceptance. One researcher stated, “Much of the day, these students are reminded of the difficulties they have in school but when they mastered a trick, they felt smart and proud of what they could do.”

Following Multi-step Directions, Concentration, and Memory Skills

Appealing to the intrinsic motivations of the students empowered them to demonstrate effective problem solving skills and improve concentration and memory skills. One researcher noted that students were able to recognize that they were following multi-step directions, accepted feedback, and had an increased sense of determination.

Fine Motor Dexterity and Gross Motor Coordination

Findings in this research confirmed what had been previously concluded by occupational and physical therapists, i.e. integrating simple magic tricks into a rehabilitation program can improve dexterity and gross motor function (DeRoovere; 1997; Kwong and Cullen, 2007; Sui and Sui,

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2007; Fisher 2007; Green, 2010).

Positive Impact on Behavior

In addition to the improvements seen in respect to self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-determination, and academic achievement, integrating magic tricks into educational activities can also have a profound impact on behavior. In a separate study conducted over a six-week period at Inner Harbor Hospital (Levin, 2007) with a group pre-adolescent boys, results confirmed that integrating simple magic tricks into classroom instruction can engage the student in the learning process and have a positive impact on self-esteem, behavior, and social cognition. Final results showed an improvement on eight (8) of the ten (10) items on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Behavior tracking also indicated significant positive gains. There was a 65% decrease in interpersonal boundary violations and a 62% decrease in the requirement of staff to intervene with behavior disciplines.

Educators involved with this research made these observations:

The Hocus Focus™ curriculum captures the students' attention immediately.

Students spend their time learning instead of watching, actively engaging them in both physical and mental capacities.

Students are introduced and taught the importance of sequential steps and following directions by the learning of simple magic tricks. These tricks offer enough 'wow' factors to keep the students engaged in the learning process.

Students are encouraged to help each other and to provide constructive feedback to their peers as they learn together.

All of the teachers stated that they saw value in the sequencing, writing, and problem solving utilized in the Hocus Focus™ curriculum and saw a connection between the Hocus Focus™ curriculum and skills in the other core curriculums.

Conclusion

Preliminary research confirms that the Hocus Focus™ Project can provide educators and students an opportunity to experience growth and development in a fun, exciting, and engaging way. The overall reception to the Hocus Focus™ Project was positive by both the teachers and the students involved.

When teachers carefully select the tricks they teach, they can provide students with opportunities for significant advancements in critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, and retention, as well as positively impact the metacognitive and self-system processes. Integrating magic into the classroom can also have a significant impact on self-esteem, self-determination, sensory development, and social behavior, as well as build relationships that might not normally exist between classmates.

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URBAN SCHOOL GARDENS: THREE CASE STUDIES IN NEWARK, N.J.

Dorothy J. Knauer

Garden-based learning provides a powerful approach to learning and sustainability for all young people, including those with special needs. This case study adds to the somewhat limited filed of research about this growing trend in international education. These three specific cases in

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Newark, N.J.—two in public schools and one in a private urban school—were conducted to review what is happening in school gardens today and to consider effects that school gardens may have for education and urban youth.

Each case examines the school setting and the purposes for the garden; a description of gardening activities in each school; school leadership and participation in relationship to and support for gardening activities; integration of garden activities into the curriculum; funding for the garden; and reported and observed benefits for students.

Methods for these case studies were: a literature review; several school and garden observations at each school with photographs, garden maps, extensive interviews with garden educator and teachers, classroom observations, observation and photos of garden-related student work; photos of past/ present garden cycles; inventory of what is planted and how gardens are planned and by whom; cafeteria menus, and website information and photos.

Educational theories support the integration of knowledge and skills acquisition with experiential learning in schools (John Dewey, 1916). Research suggests that school gardens increase academic performance (Desmond, Grieshop, and Subramaniam, 2004; Gaylie, 2009; Leiberman & Hoody, 1998, Blair, 2009) strengthen positive social interactions and positive school climate and help to build community within the school (Ozer, 2007). Gardening may be used as a therapeutic intervention, and many suggest gardens as a therapeutic setting for children with learning disabilities (Lewis, 1985; Sarver, 1985). Gardens also build environmental and health awareness, stewardship and design skills (Waliczek, Bradley & Zajicek, 2001; Waliczek, Logan & Zajicek, 2003; Waliczek & Zajicek, 1999; Orr, 2004; Louv, 2008; Blair, 2009).

The three case studies were all in schools in urban Newark, N.J. Like many cities, Newark faces many challenges in providing quality services, including education, to a relatively poor population. Over 25% of children within the city are in poverty; less than 50% of children in the public schools graduate from High School; unemployment in the largely African American population is between 15-25%; housing, hunger, and public safety/crime are all problems for families living in the city (Newark Kids Count, 2010 by Association for Children of NJ).

Two of the urban schools gardens in this case study are at public schools. 1) Clinton Avenue School is a small public school with only 3- and 4- year old classrooms. The four 4-year old classrooms are involved in a garden in a public park directly behind the school. The teacher leading the gardening activities has integrated nature study and scientific inquiry and observation skills used by the children into all of the curriculum, including literacy, math, writing, learning centers, and play areas. For example, the children draw Ven diagrams of ‘what’s living’ and ‘what’s not living’. Her class is an inclusion class, with special needs children integrated into the general classroom population, and participating in all activities-- including the gardening activities. The children’s excitement in the garden is tangible and contagious, as they discover and seek to name various plant life and bugs, held in the palm of their hand for their teacher to see. “Look, a curly cue!” exclaims a child holding a small fuzzy, curly worm. 2) J.F. Kennedy School is a school for special needs students between the ages of 10 and 21 years old with multiple- physical and mental handicaps, including autistic and medically fragile students. All

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are engaged in some way in gardening. There are two garden areas in this school, a running pond in the inner courtyard which is maintained by the students, and a large 100'x100' fenced in lot adjacent to the school filled with raised garden beds, a garden 'house' and many trees, bushes and a stone-lined path. Students draw diagrams of what they wish to grow each year in each of their classes, and each class plants a raised bed according to this student-generated plan. Perennial flowers (tulips and daffodils) bloom profusely in March and April, and then students plant vegetables and fruit according to their garden plans. Plants include: radishes, carrots, eggplants, strawberries, tomatoes, beans and lettuce. Students learn recipes to cook and eat food harvested from their gardens. In the summer, older students are part of a summer program (during school vacation) when they work part-time jobs in the gardens to maintain, harvest, and replant. The gardens are used to teach vocational skills including landscaping, pond maintenance, and agriculture. The third school, St. Philip's Academy, is a private K-8 grade urban preparatory school in a LEEDS certified 'green' building with a garden on the rooftop. The school follows an inclusive model for special needs students. There is a full kitchen-science lab, and the curriculum of all subjects includes gardening activities—from genetics to sensory gardens, to history and social studies (garden of 'three sisters'). Health and nutrition awareness are part of the cafeteria 'farm to school' model, and fresh vegetables harvested from the roof garden in season are often sampled on the 'salad bar' at lunchtime. This year, the school has started experimenting with year-round hydroponics system of growing of lettuce and leafy vegetables.

Findings relating to these school garden case studies indicate:

Demonstration by students of health awareness and a better understanding of 'healthy eating'-- all incorporate cooking and tasting into the garden and learning activities

Social and educational benefits to children

Integration of garden-related activities into and across the curriculum (reading, math, writing, science, health, art, life skills) by teachers at all three sites

All three schools incorporate five senses learning

Students display enhanced environmental awareness and stewardship of nature

Demonstrated sense of ownership and community- positive social interactions

Two of three schools utilize the garden as an alternative 'quiet space' (student choice)

All three schools have committed, passionate, knowledgeable and creative school garden leaders: they believe in their students, and that gardening will offer a value-added learning experience; these teachers see themselves as facilitators and guides for the process of student-driven learning and discovery

Institutional leadership and support, and community partnerships, both play a critical role in sustaining quality and outcomes for school gardens-- including time for staff training, planning and development, and funding for garden-related activities across the curricula, and for review of learning outcomes.

The urban environment suggests a need and great potential educational and developmental outcomes by integrating school gardening across the curriculum. Implications for future research suggest that more consistent, replicable research is needed to demonstrate: specific causal and/or correlational links between measurable learning outcomes and school gardens (Blair, 2009); vocational skills; and long-term behavioral, health and nutrition outcomes; and for

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increasing positive school climate.

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PATHWAYS TO LITERACY AND EMPLOYMENT: MEDIA ARTS AND UNIVERSAL DESIGN FOR LEARNING

Scott D. Stoner
Geraldine Simonnet

VSA, the international organization on arts and disability, was founded more than 35 years ago by Ambassador Jean Kennedy Smith to provide arts and education opportunities for people with disabilities and increase access to the arts for all. With 52 international affiliates and a network of nationwide affiliates, VSA is changing perceptions about people with disabilities around the world. Each year, 7 million people of all ages and abilities benefit from VSA's programs, services, resources and communities of practice that support educational opportunities for children, youth and adults with disabilities in arts-integrated inclusive settings, with significant funding support through the U.S. Department of Education.

Inclusion is at the heart of VSA's mission and work. VSA defines "inclusive education" as engaging students with and without disabilities in standards-based educational activities that incorporate multimodal approaches to meet each student's unique abilities, interests, and learning styles, so that they can develop their full potential. Key indicators of inclusion are provided in the book entitled, "Moving Toward Inclusive Education" (Giangreco, 2003). VSA does not consider these indicators to be a prescription of what inclusion needs to look like, but rather a guide that can challenge or extend our thinking and practice within a specific context.

Consistent with the concept of inclusive education, VSA embraces the curricular and instructional design strategy, Universal Design for Learning (UDL). An outgrowth of the Universal Design concept developed by architects to ensure full access for people with disabilities, UDL provides a blueprint for creating instructional goals, methods, materials, and assessments that work for everyone -- not a single, one-size-fits-all solution; but rather, flexible approaches that can be customized and adjusted for individual needs.

VSA's professional development for teachers, administrators and teaching artists relies on UDL as a unifying structure to ensure effective arts-integrated and inclusive teaching and learning practices. VSA has been working in partnership with CAST, an educational research and development organization, and with Lesley University, a leader in innovative and inclusive arts education theory and practice, to expand inclusive learning opportunities through the UDL framework and arts-integrated curriculum and instruction strategies. An overview of this approach, including case examples, is presented in the publication "The Contours of Inclusion: Inclusive Arts Teaching and Learning" (VSA, 2010).

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As part of its innovation and discovery initiative, VSA issued a request for proposals in the spring of 2010 to develop and implement an inclusive UDL-aligned project that uses storytelling, filmmaking, and multimedia as a means of promoting pathways to employment for school-age students in grades 9–12 (the pilot site to be an inclusive secondary-school classroom). VSA’s primary goal for this initiative was to build knowledge on the impact of storytelling, filmmaking, and multimedia in the development of employment, life, and literacy skills as evidenced by a strong assessment/evaluation component.

VSA awarded the project grant to the Victor Pineda Foundation to develop and implement the UDL-aligned course of instruction in conjunction with the Foundation’s evolving New Media Academy. The project included partnerships with the Center for Digital Storytelling and the Grover Cleveland High School Media Academy. The experience and expertise of the project partners were key to the success of this project. The director of the primary partner organization, Victor Pineda, experienced first-hand the extraordinary capacity of the arts as a transformative process to ensure inclusive educational opportunities for persons with disabilities. Joe Lambert, founder of the Center for Digital Storytelling, was a pioneer in working with young people and their families to organize and digitize personal artifacts as a process for strengthening familial relationships and cultural ties to one’s own community. Curriculum specialists and teachers at the Grover Cleveland High School Media Academy were instrumental in developing educational goals and outcomes directly linked to California standards that also aligned with the UDL instructional model.

What and why storytelling and digital media education? The process of learning what makes a good story and how to relay the story through the medium of filmmaking / digital media lends itself naturally to arts-integrated inclusive teaching and learning aligned with the principles of UDL. The production and presentation of the completed work for this project also contributes to employment-oriented learning objectives and outcomes.

The participating student teams (comprised of 30 students with and without designated disabilities) produced content on different themes related to the American disability experience using video material from the New Media Academy’s *It’s Our Story*. Accessibility standards and modifications were guided by the staff of CAST to ensure the alignment of the curriculum and instructional strategies with (UDL) standards for cognitive, sensory, and mobility specifications for an inclusive classroom setting (CAST, 2011).

The students met on eight consecutive Wednesdays for three-hour sessions in addition to having open lab access to complete three hours of weekly online digital storytelling and 21st century workforce lessons assigned by the curriculum development team each week. The project equipped and empowered students to design/create, plan, and execute the skills of crafting a good story and build an online portfolio with digital tools that contribute to a diverse set of employable skills and experience. State-of-the-art technology and teaching techniques assembled by a team of industry professionals enhanced this leading edge process.

VSA analyzed and disseminated the results of student assessments and project team evaluations related to the standards-based learning objectives. Learning objectives were defined and

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assessed in three areas: storytelling, media production, and employment based outcomes. The project has contributed to a greater understanding of the value of arts-integrated UDL-aligned programs in embracing each student's unique abilities, interests, and learning styles, and supporting them to develop their full potential in an inclusive setting.

In addition to the development and presentation of each student's online portfolio of digital stories and assets, the key partner was contracted to create a three-five minute highlight video documentary of the project (to be shown at the IASE conference session and available on VSA's web site). The project video highlights digital storytelling as a uniquely flexible art form with which a variety of presentation frameworks can be used to reinforce literacy skills, engage students in the learning process, empower voices of the future, and address specific learning goals in an environment inclusive of all learners.

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TEACHER'S EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Sonia López Díaz-Villabella

Introduction

This article aims to investigate: “If regular education teacher practices promote the development of emotional intelligence in students.” Taking into account the lack of current existing literature on the evaluation of emotional education programs, the purpose of our study was to “make an initial assessment of emotional intelligence practice competence in teacher education before implementing an education program in an affective-emotional Primary education center.

Objectives

To explore whether the patterns of teacher performance encourages the development of emotional intelligence in students according to the five factors: emotional awareness, emotional control, empathy, relationship capacity, problem solving ability.

Analyze whether the form of teacher performance differs according to whether or not the teacher belongs to the center on affective education working group.

Analyze whether the teachers performance differs depending on age, gender and years of teaching experience.

Method

We used a quantitative approach through a non experimental descriptive design.

Participants

Twenty one teachers in a state school in the city of Alicante participated in this study. Of these, 17 were women (81%) and 4 men (19%). The average age of teachers at the school was 40.71 years, with a standard deviation of 10.15. The center is located in an urban environment within a central area in the city of Alicante. The total number of students is 424. The center has 6 units of Early Childhood and 12 units of Primary Education. The total number of teachers is 29 of which 13 participated in a working group, training in the so called “Emotional Education and Values for Living”. The cultural level of the population is middle and upper-middle and school levels achieved at the end of the primary stage are satisfactory. The employee is non-probability sampling. This would be an available sampling, since the group has been selected because of its accessibility.

Variables and Measuring Instruments

Taken into account were two types of variables, the first one related to demographics and the second one related to items on the administered questionnaire. This questionnaire was intended to determine whether common educational practices of teachers develop emotional intelligence in students. The questionnaire PEYDE (Educating Emotional Intelligence in the Classroom)

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(Gallego and Gallego, 2004) was administered to teachers. The questionnaire consists of 5 factors to assess emotional intelligence: emotional awareness, emotional control, empathy, relationship capacity, problem solving ability. Each of these factors consists of 10 items that are evaluated through an interval scale where the record was made with numbers from 0 to 3 (0= never, 3= always) according to frequency of reported behavior. To assess the reliability of this instrument, we examined internal consistency through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Reliability was found to be .929 for the 50 items. Therefore, since that figure is close to 1, this instrument can be considered as being very reliable. The instrument appears to be valid, as it conforms to the variables that it is intended to measure.

Procedure

The working group "Emotional Education and Values for Living" meets biweekly to develop their work. It also establishes a quarterly meeting with the faculty to discuss their activities. In a briefing it was explained to all staff of the center how to fill out the questionnaire, along with demographic variables required. Ensuring the anonymity of the teacher, the questionnaire was completed at the meeting itself and delivered by the majority of teachers except for a small number of teachers that were not present.

Results and Conclusion

The results of this investigation into the practice of the teachers surveyed in relation to the development of emotional intelligence, showed that most teachers tried to give the impression that they care about their students, they praise them when they start behaving in an appropriate way and encourage students to participate in class. Similarly, most of the teachers said that when a student is disturbed they try to stay calm, like to help students find the solution to a problem and resolve a conflict without letting things happen. However, the major detected shortcomings in the development of emotional intelligence are related to the foresight of time to reflect on the feelings and the certainty of its insights. These data show that although teachers have goodwill and attitude towards the development of these skills and are aware of its importance, they lack anticipation of possible problems and of a time in the classroom dedicated to work on these aspects.

Regarding the second objective of this research to analyze whether teacher performance differed according to whether it belongs, or not, to a working group on education center results were contrary to expectations. With the exception of one, we found significant differences in favor of people who did not belong to the working group.

The final objective proposed in this research was to analyze whether teacher performance differed depending on age, gender, intuition, self-control and error recognitions, and qualities that literature and tradition often attributed as more typically female. It should be noted that there is a potential limitation of this study because the collected data were based on self-reports and therefore, the responses should be interpreted with caution. The terminology used may also have caused some problems. While explanations were provided to the faculty participants were told

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we cannot rule out the possibility that teachers had ruled in an unsafe manner or acting in some cases. Therefore, it is considered advisable to replicate this study, possibility with representative samples of a wider geographical area.

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THE CHALLENGES OF ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION PERSONNEL PREPARATION IN NIGERIA

Felix Otunban Nkangwung

Introduction

Disability limits the functional ability of persons with disabilities in various ways depending on the type or nature of the disability. Over the years several means of helping individuals overcome these limitations to their functional capabilities have been devised. These include the use of assistive or adaptive technology. Assistive technology is technology used by individuals with disabilities in order to perform functions that might otherwise be difficult or impossible. Many persons with disabilities can benefit greatly from assistive technology including those with physical, visual and hearing impairments. However, in this paper we will limit our consideration to the use of assistive technology in the education of persons with visual impairment.

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Assistive Technology Defined

Assistive technology or adaptive technology (AT) is an umbrella term that includes assistive, adaptive and rehabilitative devices for people with disabilities and also includes the process of selecting, locating and using them. (Wikipedia, 2011). The United States Assistive Technology Act of 2004 defines an assistive technology device as “any item, piece of equipment, or product system, whether acquired commercially, modified, or customized that is used to increase, maintain or improve functional capabilities of individuals with disabilities.(Montana Office of Public Instruction, 2004). Similarly, assistive technology service has been defined as any service that directly assists an individual with a disability in the selection, acquisition, or use of an assistive technology device.

As Behrmann (1998) observed, the definition of assistive technology applied to education is extremely broad and encompassing thus making the range of AT devices incredibly large. Both “high-tech” and “low –tech” devices are included. This definition also expands the consideration of potential educational applications with its’ focus on devices “used to increase, maintain or improve the functional capabilities of persons with disabilities”.

It has been observed that assistive technology can be very powerful means of improving outcomes and increasing the independence of persons with disabilities. It can also improve the quality of life and the ability of persons with disabilities to fully participate in all their social roles within their communities (Szlankowicz, 2007). However, without ensuring timely access to appropriate technology, we may be creating additional barriers to integration and increasing the marginalization of people living with disabilities.

In the past few decades many developments in technology have been applied to learners with disabilities, especially learners with visual impairment. Some of the areas that have benefited from this development include mobility, information and communication, etc. In mobility, for instance, several electronic travel aids have been designed which substitute aural or tactile signals for information normally detected through sight.

Challenges Facing Students

One of the major challenges facing students with visual impairment in Nigeria is the non-availability of assistive technology devices and services. Unlike the US and some other industrialized countries whose governments have a legal mandate to provide assistive technology to children with special needs, Nigeria has no such laws. As a result most children who need Assistive Technology (AT) do not have access to them. Most of the devices are not produced locally and the prohibitive cost of importation takes them beyond the reach of the majority of parents who may wish to provide such items for their children.

Consequently, there is a massive poor student, and even teacher, awareness of assistive technology for students who are blind or visually impaired. If in the United States, where the technology is available by legal mandate, a National survey that investigated the use of AT by students found that the majority of students were not using AT (Kelly, 2009), one can only imagine what the situation could be in Nigeria where they are not available.

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Challenges Facing Teachers and Teacher Trainers

Although some of these technologies are taken for granted in many industrialized countries, they can largely be referred to in educational circles as ‘new technology’ in most developing countries. This is related to the fact that the present majority of members of the teaching profession grew up without experiencing the benefits of this technology. If this was the case in the United Kingdom when referring to computer/microelectronic technology less than two decades ago (Bultjens & Aitken, 1993), one can only imagine what the situation could be in Nigeria today. A majority of the teachers of students with visual impairment lack the necessary assistive technology competencies and are therefore of little assistance to their students in this area.

Implications for Personnel Preparation

In Nigeria the importance of teacher preparation in the education system is underscored by the policy declaration that “no education system may rise above the quality of its’ teachers” (FRN, 2004). The success of special education services depends to a very large extent on the personnel who deliver such services. This brings to focus the importance of highly trained and efficient personnel in the area of special education.

Historically, teacher education for special education in Nigeria is a comparatively recent origin. Unlike general education which dates back to the middle of the nineteenth century, the training of special educators in Nigeria began in the 1970s. Prior to this time, available teachers were either trained abroad or acquired their specialized skills through apprenticeship. This is, however, in conformity with the early history and models for the preparation of special education teachers in some other countries (Roberts, 1986; Nkangwung, 2005).

The first university-based teacher preparation course in Nigeria was offered at the University of Ibadan in 1974 as a one-year certificate course. However, the first degree course was established in the same university in 1976. Thus began the unprecedented rise in the number of teacher preparation programmes in the seventies. Today, teacher education for special education in Nigeria has attained a self-sustaining status as the tertiary institutions involved are striving to live up to expectation.

Having considered the challenges faced by both students with visual impairment and their teachers it is important to note the implications of these challenges for teacher preparation. To compensate for vision loss and subsequent challenges, individuals with visual impairments have relied on assistive technologies for centuries. To be successful in today’s technologically advanced society, they must have the tools for and necessary training in assistive technology. Therefore, it is imperative that teachers of students with visual impairments are prepared to provide effective and efficient instruction in assistive technology (Smith, Kelley, Maushak, Griffin-Shirley & Lan, 2009). This is the new challenge that teacher preparation for special education in Nigeria must strive to overcome.

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CREATING AN INCLUSIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE TO INCLUDE ALL CHILDREN IN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES: DEVELOPING APPROPRIATE INCLUSIONARY PROGRAMS

Dorothea “Mike” Monfore
Patrick Grant

Throughout the world, educators are seeking ways to create schools that promote justice and [Back to Table of Contents](#)

enhance the learning and performance of all children. They are discovering that old patterns of segregating students by race, gender, culture, language, and ability, model oppression, reduce effective learning, and prevent the development of relationships among diverse children (Whole Schooling Research Project, 2000). Inclusion is a philosophy that brings diverse students, families, educators, and community members together to create schools and other social institutions based on acceptance, belonging, and community (Rose, 2008). Inclusion recognizes that all students are capable learners who benefit from a meaningful, challenging, and appropriate curriculum delivered within the general education classroom, and from differentiated instruction techniques that address their diverse and unique strengths, challenges and experiences (Forlin, 2008; Giangreco, 2007, Tomlinson, Brimijoin, & Narvaez, 2008).

Within the confines of the United States the desire to educate all learners started with the *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* decision of 1954 and continues today with the existing legislation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (2004) and Americans with Disabilities Act (1990). While United States law does not speak directly to inclusion, it does require the placement of students in the least restrictive environment. Professional thinking suggests that in order to create the least restrictive environment, children must be educated with each other within the same classroom or at least in the same building. In contrast, internationally, the inclusion movement is still in its infancy.

In 1990, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) along with several other organizations at the World Conference on Education for All, launched a global movement to provide quality basic education for all children, youth and adults. Participants pledged to universalize primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 2010). Ten years later, with many countries far from having reached this goal, the international community met and affirmed their commitment to achieving Education for All by the year 2015. Six key educational goals were identified which aim to meet the learning needs of all children, youth and adults (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 2010). These goals focus on expanding and improving all aspects of education including access to appropriate learning environments.

When engaged in creating a new phenomenon like inclusion in a climate that finds it difficult to either provide for children with disabilities, or does not have the staff or resources to undertake the task of educating a group of students they are unfamiliar with or are not trained to teach, inclusion may be a foreign concept. It is therefore important that educational institutions when considering the need or possibility of establishing an inclusion program, first seek outside guidance and assistance as well as take an in depth look at the strengths of their internal structure (Algozzine & Yesseldyke, 2006). Schools looking to implement inclusive education need to value diversity, have supportive leadership, establish high educational standards, develop a sense of community, and hold all participants accountable for the outcomes of their students (Curcic, 2009). Therefore, it is important to share the experiences from the United States and provide guidance to other countries that are developing inclusive educational programs. Discussion needs to be centered around (1) concerns with student outcomes in inclusive settings, (2) teachers' beliefs and the ways they relate to their practices, (3) inclusive schools philosophies and

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practices, and (4) the intersection of inclusion and exclusion (Curcic, 2009).

While inclusion is often portrayed as a belief of a philosophy that all children should be educated in the general education classrooms, inclusion is sometimes viewed as a challenge that has not been met by educators (Curcic, 2009). Inclusion should not be a feel good activity, but an activity that is designed to promote a learning environment for ALL students within the school and community setting. It is important to understand that educating all learners must be the goal of every citizen throughout the world.

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