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Papers presented
at the
Fifth Biennial
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held in
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*Official Journal
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International Association of Special Education*

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MISSION STATEMENT

International Association for Special Education

The aims of the IASE are to promote professional exchange among special educators all over the world, to develop special education as a discipline and profession, to encourage international cooperation and collaborative international research, to promote continuing education of its members by organizing conferences, and to foster international communication in special education through the International Journal of Special Education.

***JOURNAL OF THE INTERNATIONAL
ASSOCIATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION***

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EDITORIAL NOTE

The Inaugural Edition of the Journal of the International Association of Special Education marks an exciting period of growth for the IASE. Under the leadership of Mary Gale Budzisz, the IASE President during 1996 and 1997, the IASE put its "house in order" and became responsive to the needs and suggestions of the membership. Mary Gale's strong will, clear vision and sense of honesty influenced the Executive Board of the IASE to establish a journal that was truly international in scope and message. Thank you Mary Gale for all you have done to provide a vehicle where international concerns and methods may be discussed in a practical and scholarly format.

I wish to thank Sam Minner of East Tennessee State University and Greg Prater of Northern Arizona University for their scholarly leadership in the selection of papers for the maiden edition of our new *Journal*. As editors of the Proceedings of the Fifth Biennial International Conference of the IASE, they selected several papers for expansion and possible inclusion in the first volume of the *Journal*. They selected articles that would be of interest to a wide range of our membership.

Other articles were selected by the editor based on various criteria, including relevance to international readership, clarity, usefulness and documentation. It is our hope that future articles will be received from a variety of individuals from the international community.

For all who were present at the Fifth Biennial Conference in Capetown, the papers by Martha Olckers, Minister of Education for Western Cape Province, South Africa and Brian O'Connell, Director of General Education for Western Cape Province, South Africa are familiar. So much is happening in South Africa and a great opportunity exists to provide services for all children who require special education. These articles were included because they set the tone for a conference attended by almost six hundred special educators from 35 countries throughout the world.

Finally, this edition contains information regarding IASE membership, a call for papers for the Sixth Biennial Conference scheduled for Sydney, Australia in 1999 and other information for IASE members.

Roger A. Fazzone, Ed.D.
Editor

NAVIGATING CHANGE

MR. O'CONNELL'S SPEECH FOR *THE INTERNATIONAL SPECIAL EDUCATION* CONFERENCE HELD AT THE BELLVILLE HOLIDAY INN

3-8 AUGUST 1997

Mr. Chairman/Madam Chair, Ladies and Gentlemen:

On behalf of the Western Cape Education Department, I am glad to have this opportunity of welcoming you to this second day of the Fifth Biennial Conference of the International Association of Special Education. I hope that our visitors will be able to enjoy much of what the Olympic Bid city and "the fairest Cape in all the world" have to offer; and I also hope that many of you will stay on after the conference to experience the beauty of our province, especially since this is just the time for the brief annual miracle of the west coast's spring flowers, surely one of the loveliest sights our eyes may ever see.

Thank you for inviting me to address this important conference. I must congratulate its organizers on their choice of its theme—"New Hopes, New Horizons: The Challenges of Diversity in Education." Not only is this a theme of immediate import for everyone in the field of special education, as indeed for all educationists worldwide, but it is also one especially appropriate to South Africa at this moment of our history, a moment whose very essence is change and the challenges it brings.

To multitudes of South Africans, new hopes and new horizons are very much a part of the wide-scale changes transforming this country. We understand that the inevitable problems in such a process cannot be solved overnight. The positive attitude amongst most South Africans will, however, go far toward making this nation work.

So for us, at least, this conference is not only a meeting of educationists, it is also part of the nation-building process to which we are now committed. Conferences, and the critical debates they foster, are generally pivotal in increasing knowledge and solving problems. But at this time, particularly, South Africa needs international contact and participation to help in finding solutions to the wide range of challenges that confront us.

South Africa's political changes and their consequences have already had far-reaching effects on all aspects of life here, and perhaps nowhere more strongly than in education. Naturally, special education has not been immune to these influences, and

conventional practices in this field are now coming very much under the spotlight for scrutiny. The shift taking place internationally from the medical and welfare model to the rights model enjoys much support in this country. The essence of the transformation process is respect for the rights of all our people, no matter who or how diverse they may be and special education is firmly committed to this.

In my address I shall attempt to outline, (i) the linkage between international trends and those now emerging in this country, (ii) some challenges that lie ahead and (iii) some new hopes and concerns of special educationists.

INTERNATIONAL TRENDS AND SOUTH AFRICA'S COMMITMENTS

In June 1994, the ancient university city of Salamanca was the venue for the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality. It was at this conference that the drive for *Inclusive Education*, also known as *Education for All*, was given expression in the resolution that came to be known as the Salamanca Statement.

This statement, endorsed by 92 countries and 25 international organizations, declared its message unequivocally thus:

“We, the delegates of the World Conference on Special Needs Education...hereby affirm our commitment to *Education for All*, recognizing the necessity and urgency of providing education for children, youths and adults with special education needs within the regular education system and further hereby endorse the Framework of Action on Special Needs Education, that governments and organizations may be guided by the spirit of its provisions and recommendations.”

In pursuit of this goal, the South African Federal Council on Disability (SAFCD) called for the development of a single Inclusive Education system for South Africa. This is what it had to say:

“Learners with special education needs...have a right to equal access to education at all levels in a single inclusive education system that is responsive to the diverse needs of all learners, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning as well as different language needs in the case of deaf learners where their first language is sign language, and ensuring quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, technical strategies, resource use and partnerships with their communities.”

At least 28 organizations and institutions in South Africa were involved in the formulation of this statement. The SAFCD was thus anything but alone in its call for a nondiscriminatory approach to education.

Dealing with education, South Africa's interim constitution was also unequivocal:

“Every person shall have the right (a) to basic education and (b) to equal access to

educational institutions...”

and the government’s draft, White Paper on Education, declares that:

“ It is essential to increase awareness of the importance of Education Support Services...in an education and training system which is committed to equal access, nondiscrimination, and redress, and which needs to target those sections of the learning population which have been most neglected or are most vulnerable.”

Of particular interest is the Reconstruction and Development Program, or “RDP”. This was designed by the new government to redress historical imbalances and restore equity and its program statement stresses the need to enable all sectors of our society, but especially those hitherto marginalized, to gain access into the mainstream of its economic and social life so that they may participate actively and fully in it. In other words, inclusiveness is the very essence of the RDP and the vital role of education here surely needs no elaboration. The schoolgoing years are crucial to our socialization, and if we do not learn to interact properly with others during this formative time, we may never manage it at all.

Finally, both the Western Cape Education Department and the National Commission on Special Education Needs and Training have committed themselves to the principle of inclusion.

CHALLENGES POSED BY THE NEW VISION

Let us look at three problems which will have to be overcome if Inclusive Education is to be changed from a possibility into a reality.

Fiscal Constraints

These are usually quoted as major factors in the debate on whether to change special education or maintain the status quo. Arguably, South Africa’s expenditure on education, as a percentage of its Gross Domestic Product, is very close, if not equal, to that of most developed countries. Despite this, the question on many people’s lips is: Can we not spend more money on education? Interestingly, this question is dismissed as irrelevant and actually a contradiction in terms by Peter Evans, who is responsible for programs on special education at the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development in Paris. Evans argues that:

“...the very process of tying funding to disability can, in some countries, serve to ‘label’ children and steer them in the direction of segregated special schooling.”

At any rate, affordability cannot be cited with any confidence as a problem until we have carefully calculated the financial implications of an integrated or inclusive system and can compare them, accurately, with the cost of the existing system.

According to research conducted by UNESCO in 1995, private funding can play

an important role in financing Inclusive Education. For example, in Germany “27% of special schools are run by private groups.” The argument that the private sector in developing nations such as South Africa may be unable to provide this kind of help looks rather weak if one considers the percentage of private funding in the following countries: Jamaica, 10%; Nicaragua, 12%; Botswana, 20%; Malawi, 25%; El Salvador, 25%; and Indonesia, 50%. It seems as if the fiscal objection may be raised, more often than not, in defense of vested interests and perhaps sometimes for ideological rather than factual reasons.

Ideological Resistance

Any really new idea arouses opposition. This is normal, and indeed inevitable, since in each of us there coexists, in complex tension, both the conservative desire to cherish the good we have and the progressive drive to move on to something better. Hostility toward innovation plays a valuable role too; for, it is only by overcoming the opposition it arouses that any new idea can prove that it deserves to survive: as William Blake put it, “Without contraries there is no progression.” When the new idea has to do with education-i.e., what other people propose to do with our children, an ex-trremely sensitive matter-it is likely to draw fire that is more than usually hot. So it is hardly surprising that Inclusive Education has not been welcomed by all.

After all, it does seem to fly in the face of various established, tried-and-tested assumptions, beliefs and practices. But for educationists, as for all academics, it is precisely the established, tried-and-tested assumptions, beliefs and practices that need to be constantly subjected to critical questioning. And we South Africans, in a society with a real chance of democracy at last, have an especial need to question our existing practices and beliefs, the approaches and views we have accepted as obvious an absolute truths.

Foucault’s words on this critical questioning are worth quoting:

“Criticism is a matter of flushing out that thought (which animates everyday behavior) and trying to change it: to show that things are not self-evident as one believed, to see that what is accepted as self-evident can no longer be accepted as such...As soon as one can no longer think things as one formerly thought them, transformation becomes both very urgent...and quite possible.”

Those who are skeptical of Inclusive Education need to subject their own assumptions to this searching, questioning spirit. There is no body of knowledge sacrosanct and exempt from the creatively disrespectful analytic attack of the critical intellect.

Exactly the same is true, of course, for the proponents of the new approach. The moment we start to believe that there is really very little justification for calling into question the legitimacy of Inclusive Education, alarm bells should start ringing in our minds. We must not break free from one restrictive ideology only to end up swaddled in another.

Large Classes

The challenge posed by large classes is indeed a factor to be considered in a Rights Model that points toward Inclusive Education. When Spain, for example, was preparing for integration, the very first commitment which the project required the Ministry of Education to make was to reduce the number of children in classes. Economics dictates large classes, integrating learners with special needs requires small ones. It looks as if certain compromises will have to be made for Inclusive Education to be implemented.

These three challenges are daunting but not insuperable, and if they are dealt with seriously and adequately, it is clear that Inclusive Education can be a feasible option. However, it is also worth stressing that this option does not mean the end of special schools, as is feared by many workers in that field.

THE POSSIBLE IMPLICATIONS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION FOR SPECIAL SCHOOLS

Possible changes in the role and responsibility of special schools have been greeted with apprehension by some, and with excitement by others. In the past, South Africa's racial provision benefited only a small number of the children who were disabled and left the rest unattended. Our new educational system must serve all, and serve them equitably.

Our current budgetary constraints rule out the option of building schools for all those who need, but do not receive, special education. Therefore, it seems that the only viable alternative is a system of Inclusive Education in which special schools have their own crucial role to play.

According to Peter Evans, in a study done in Australia, special schools can play a pivotal role in an inclusive system. For this to happen, the study revealed, staff from both regular and special schools should carefully negotiate what support is required and how it should be offered. Not surprisingly, this research also found that the special school staff should have the training and the consultancy skills that their work calls for and that the teaching strategies advocated should be demonstrated in practice and not just talked about.

In Finland, where the majority of children with visual impairment are educated in mainstream schools, special schools (i) maintain records and help to plan educational programs, (ii) organize and run short on-site courses for non-specialist teachers on the effects of visual impairment on learning, study techniques and the use of visual aids, and (iii) also run a library of Braille books and sound-recordings.

In the United Kingdom, about half the children on the roll of special schools attend mainstream schools on a part-time basis, accompanied by nurses who assist in

the ordinary classes in which these children are integrated; thus, compensating for the additional work imposed on the classroom teacher. Integrated settings are carefully selected, and include play-time, lunch, physical education, dance and certain other practical activities.

According to Evans, the key to effectiveness, both for special school teachers involved in outreach and for external services, is that they need, first, to work in a climate positively disposed toward integration; second, to develop the appropriate assessment, training and advisory skills; and third, to help teachers cope for themselves rather than be overdependent on outside agencies.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this is a time when there appears, indeed, to be new hopes and new horizons for learners with special education needs. As responsible educationists, we need to ensure that these hopes and horizons are attained through proper planning and careful monitoring. At the same time we must not be afraid of change: after all, the very fact that we are where we are is the result of change. As Shakespeare said,

There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune:
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.
On such a full sea are we now afloat,
And we must take the current when it serves,
Or lose our ventures.

I hope that this distinguished gathering's deliberations, today and during the rest of this conference, will help both you and us to steer a sure course toward the horizons we all want to reach. I hope, too, as I hinted at the outset, that by the time they leave, our visitors will have experienced enough of what lies between the horizons of the Western Cape to ensure that it will not be too long before we are once more in the pleasant position of welcoming them to our shores.

Once again, I am grateful to have had this opportunity to speak to you. I thank you for your attentive hearing.

**WELCOMING ADDRESS AT THE FIFTH BIENNIAL CONFERENCE
OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SPECIAL EDUCATION IN TYGERBERG**

4 August 1997

*Minister Martha Olckers
MEC for Education and Cultural Affairs in the Western Cape*

Chair, Miss Paulsen, other colleagues, delegates, ladies and gentlemen:

My sincere thanks to IASE for inviting me to this conference. For my own part, I am especially pleased that this important biennial international conference of the International Association of Special Education (IASE) is taking place not only in South Africa, but in the Western Cape Province, and above all in the beautiful Cape Peninsula. I should like to congratulate the organizers of the conference on their excellent choice! It is therefore as much a delight as duty to welcome you, on behalf of the Premier of the Western Cape, Mr. Hernus Kriel, as well as myself, to Province. My heartfelt wish is that you will enjoy both the conference and your visit.

The conference could not have been better timed. Developing a policy for learners with special education needs is of prime concern to the Western Cape Education Department, and is therefore receiving our urgent attention. This is exactly the stage at which we need the input of experts on special education. I believe that your deliberations this week can make an important contribution to the shaping of our policy.

There can be no disputing, or ignoring, the extensive need for special education in South Africa. According to research, the number of learners involved amounts to an alarming percentage of our school-going population. This clearly has serious implications for education in South Africa. At the same time, our new Constitution and the Schools Act of 1996 as well as the Salamanca Accord of 1995, to which South Africa is a cosignatory, reflects our commitment to the fundamental principle that education for ALL learners is a basic human right.

So it is not only the policy, but also the firm belief of the Western Cape Education Department that all learners entrusted to its care are entitled to the very best education, given their unique abilities, needs and personal circumstances, that we can possibly provide.

It was in pursuit of this goal that certain schools and classes for learners with special educational needs were originally established, here as elsewhere. Unfortunately, not all our learners with special educational needs are suitably accommodated as yet and remedying this situation is as urgent as any of our priorities. In the spirit of the conference theme, we have to tackle the challenge of the diversity of our schoolgoers'

needs in order to provide new hopes and new horizons for all of them, including those whose needs are special.

At this stage, we are not establishing more schools for South Africa's learners with special education needs, since it runs counter to the principle of inclusive education for all learners with special needs.

For the Western Cape Education Department, inclusive education is far more than just absorbing learners with severe disabilities into the regular classroom or school. It is, in essence, the reshaping of education to suit the needs of all learners, regardless of whether they are special or not. Inclusive education also means creating an environment that can accommodate and meet the needs of all learners. A continuum or range of services is thus needed.

At the one end of it, we would deliver enrichment education and provide for those learners who need special intervention for only a few hours or days. At the other end of the range, we would render highly specialized services in schools for learners with special needs, for those who need the kind of specialized support which cannot be given in ordinary mainstream schools.

To summarize the policy of the Western Cape Education Department on the provision of special education:

Some learners with special needs can be accommodated in mainstream classes. The teachers will be helped by a support team to meet their needs as effectively as possible. If necessary, these learners can be taken out of the mainstream classes for a while and assisted in groups with additional educational support.

Learners who need special education and who cannot cope in the mainstream classes will be placed and taught in separate classes in mainstream schools.

Learners whose needs cannot be met by either of the options I have just mentioned will be catered for either in separate schools providing only special education, or in special units established at mainstream schools. A special education unit of this kind can consist of three or more classes for learners with special needs, and if a unit like this is established at a centrally located school, it can serve other schools in that neighborhood as well.

The learner-centered approach is fundamental and "non-negotiable" in the education of all, no matter what their needs or circumstances are and it is via this approach that we intend to give new hope and open new horizons to the learners of this Province who need special education.

During the conference, I trust that you will comment on the proposed system for providing special education which I have briefly outlined, so that your insights can help us to refine it in the best interests of all our learners.

May you find the conference fruitful and rewarding. I now declare this conference to be officially open.

Thank you.



TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE EDUCATION OF STUDENTS WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENT IN A REGULAR SECONDARY SCHOOL IN KWAZULU NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

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Teachers in a large coeducational secondary school were asked for their attitudes towards the desirability and practicality of including students with visual impairments in their school. Teachers' responses varied considerably, with some advancing ideological opinions on these matters. Most were more concerned about the availability of resources and funding. The implications for the implementation of inclusive education for students with visual impairment are discussed. Matters of resistance, prejudice and reluctance to embrace change are endemic as this province reorganises its educational facilities following the removal of racially-segregated schools. It is important that other bases of discrimination, such as disability and access, are not overshadowed in the debates about reorganisation.

Background:

Education in South Africa has been characterised by division, discrimination and disorganisation. Educational planning and management was vested in seventeen education departments, separated from one another on racial or so-called ethnic or cultural lines (Christie, 1991). The status quo was one that Kriegler and Farman (1994) describe as "special education" for whites, implying that resources and services were abundant in the traditionally white schools and virtually non-existent for pupils of other races, particularly black pupils. Since 1991, however, education has begun the slow process of reconstruction and transformation as South Africa has embarked on a path toward a more democratic society. Racially-segregated schools have been removed and efforts are in place to eliminate prejudice and discrimination and to redress the imbalances of the past. Policies of training teachers to accommodate diversity in their teaching have been devised to ensure that the developmental and educational needs of **all** children are met (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997). The **all** in the above citation automatically invokes, in the context of South Africa's past and current political climate, the idea of equal access for children of **all races**. Ideally, the citation should convey the idea of equal access for **all children**, regardless of their individual disabilities, their differences in learning, and their race. In other words, it is important that other bases of discrimination in this country, such as disability, are not overshadowed in the debate about racial discrimination. Educators could make use of the current

context of change in South African education to introduce and implement policies of inclusive education for those with disabilities, for example, those with hearing, visual, physical and intellectual impairments.

As in other countries in the past, “special” education in South Africa has been seen as (yet another) separate and specialised wing of the education system that takes responsibility for the education of children disabled in some way (Ainscow, 1989). This practice of special schools for the disabled has its roots in the belief that because of their limitations or disabilities, these children would require forms of education different from those received by the majority. At present, education for the blind and partially-sighted pupil in South Africa is still based on this belief, and thus takes place almost exclusively in special schools for the visually-impaired. Until recently, South Africa had fifteen schools for the blind and partially-sighted. Most of these are residential. Each school had an enrollment of approximately one hundred and fifty children (not all necessarily with visual disabilities or exclusively visual disabilities) and until the recent “opening” of schools, these schools were further divided along racial lines. More recently however, and along the lines of development in the United States and United Kingdom, the practice of separate special schools for the visually impaired has come under a great deal of attack (Slavin, 1991). Criticism has been directed mainly at the exclusive, discriminatory nature of segregation which is seen by many as a fundamental denial of human rights (Ballard, 1989). As a result of this and other factors, there has been a shift away from the separatist, dual education system in the United States and United Kingdom, and a movement has occurred towards including children with disabilities into the regular school. There has also been an increasing awareness of the need to focus on changing the classroom contexts in which all children learn (Green, Naicker & Naude, 1995) and defining the school and classroom culture as including children with diverse backgrounds, abilities and contributions (Salisbury, 1991). In the light of the emphasis on human rights and equal opportunity in the new South African constitution, and international support for the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994), with its strong inclusive orientation, it is appropriate to critically examine and analyse the educational practices and possibilities in this country for children with visual impairments.

In this paper, the rationale for inclusive education of children with visual impairments is examined. The implications for its implementation in South Africa are discussed with reference to a study on the attitudes of teachers to the desirability and feasibility of such a practice for children with visual impairments.

Mainstreaming and Inclusion

Mainstreaming is one practice that has emerged in the debate surrounding the restructuring of special education. This refers to the act of “allowing” a child with a disability into mainstream (regular) schools, classrooms and curriculum. It represents

an attempt to deliver within a regular school the form of education previously provided in the special school. This approach has been much criticised, because the assumptions here are that 1) the school has the resources to meet the child's "special" needs and 2) that the child must "fit into" or be accommodated into the system. The responsibility rests on the child to fit in, rather than on the school adapting its teaching and curriculum to teach for diversity. How and what we teach and whom we teach for, both in regular and special education, goes uncontested here and thus, Kriegler and Farman have commented that mainstreaming is nothing but "a piecemeal response to a whole school issue" (1994:4).

Inclusive Education seems to address these difficulties. In inclusive education the emphasis falls on the system meeting the needs of children as normally and inclusively as possible, rather than on the child having to be separated or excluded or to adapt to suit the system. In other words, the emphasis is on the improvement of the quality of schooling for all pupils, and looks at the effectiveness of schools, school improvement, classroom practice and staff development as a whole. This has also been referred to as the "Whole School Movement" or the "Regular Education Initiative". In looking at education from this perspective we are then forced to consider the appropriateness of the special methods and materials used with individuals with disabilities. This brings us to another level of discourse, to question our assumptions about disability and our priorities in developing an appropriate curriculum for an individual with a disability.

Regular School Placement of Children with Visual Impairments

In 1991, 33% of children with visual impairments were in regular classes in the United States; 30% in resource rooms, 19% in special classes, 18% in special schools and 1% in "other" environments. (Slavin, 1991:426). The numbers of pupils with visual-impairments in respective placements in South Africa is not known. In South Africa, far fewer children with visual impairment are placed in regular schools. Where they are included in the regular classroom, it has probably been a matter of coincidence rather than careful planning according to educationally sound principles. Many children of the black population for example, may find themselves in regular education simply because there has been nowhere else to go.

If we believe in equal opportunities, then looking at the educational placement of children with visual impairment becomes, fundamentally, a human rights issue and these children should have the right to enjoy access to the same range and quality of educational opportunities as their peers.

Do teachers perceive inclusion to be desirable and feasible? Semmel, Abernathy, Butera & Lesar (1991) expressed concern that little attention has been focused on the views of regular service providers and that the debate has involved mainly academics. Kauffman (1988), similarly, specifically expressed concern that "enough respect be

shown for regular classroom teachers to ask them what they perceive based on teaching practice, is feasible, desirable, and in the best interest of students” (in Semmel *et al*, 1991:10).

Semmel *et al*'s study (1991) on teacher attitudes indicated that educators prefer pull-out programs, especially for those with moderate to severe disabilities. Villa, Thousand, Meyers & Nevin's study (1991), on the other hand, suggested that both general and special education teachers favoured the education of children with disabilities in general education through collaborative relationships among all educators.

Current Study

A study was conducted with the staff of a large local, coeducational, nonracial school. A questionnaire was drawn up of both open and closed questions about the desirability and feasibility of including children with visual impairments in regular education. A distinction was drawn between blind and particularly-sighted pupils, since we believed that the attitudes and perceived feasibility of inclusion of pupils from these two groups would differ. Visual impairment is difficult to define and may range from the absence of functional vision to some useful vision. For the purposes of this study, partially-sighted pupils were defined as those who could read print even though magnifying devices or large print books and other adaptations may have been needed, i.e. they could use sight as a source of information. Blind pupils were defined as those whose sight was so impaired that they could not use sight as a tool of learning for academic purposes.

Teachers were asked whether they felt that, in principle, pupils with these levels of visual impairment should be included in regular schools and asked whether or not they would be prepared to have such pupils in their classes. Teachers were asked to elaborate on their responses.

The questionnaire was administered by the researchers at a staff meeting. Teachers were informed that participation was voluntary and confidential. They were briefed about the meaning of visual impairment, the nature of educational provision for pupils with visual impairment, and the debate around restructuring these provisions. Of a staff of forty-three, four teachers were absent and three declined to participate. Thirty-one questionnaires were returned, i.e. 72 %.

The data were analysed using chi-square and tested for 4 null-hypotheses:

1. Attitudes towards inclusion are independent of the degree of visual impairment of the child.
2. Willingness to include children with visual impairment in the regular classroom is independent of the degree of visual impairment of the child.
3. There is no difference between attitudes towards inclusion and willing-

ness to include blind children in their own classroom.

4. There is no difference between attitudes toward inclusion and willingness to include partially-sighted pupils in their own classroom.

Results and Discussion

In testing the null hypotheses of 1 and 2, both chi-square calculated values (23.292 and 16.672), respectively, were greater than the chi-square critical value (3.84) at the 0.05 level. Thus, attitudes towards inclusion and willingness to teach pupils with visual impairments are decidedly related to the degree of visual impairment of the child. The greater the degree of visual impairment, the less likely teachers thought that the children should be included and the less likely they were to be prepared to teach the children as members of their regular classes.

Teachers were both positive towards inclusion and willing to include (80.6% in favour) the **partially-sighted** child in their class. This stood in direct contrast to the 19% of teachers who said that they agreed, in principle, with including blind pupils and the 29% who said that they would be prepared to have a blind pupil in their class. These findings are in keeping with those by Putnam, Spiegel & Bruniks (1995), whose survey of educators revealed that whilst the integration of students with mild disabilities was supported, lack of consensus existed concerning the desirability of including students with moderate to severe disabilities in general classrooms.

Teachers apparently felt ill-equipped to deal with the child with visual impairment in the class. This applied particularly to the blind pupil, where the majority felt that very specific skills, which they did not possess, were needed. The idea that very specialised skills are needed for this work needs to be contested. It also appeared that the more teachers perceived that their own teaching styles needed to be changed, the more resistant they were to including the child in the class.

Including children with visual impairments was seen in a favourable light so long as the child could fit in with the system and major adaptations, demands on time, and changes in instructional method were not required from the teachers. It appeared that, even where teachers recognised that current teaching practices were not necessarily geared toward the accommodation of diversity, teachers felt that they were under a great deal of time pressure and the need to change brought with it extra demands on time and energy.

There were few differences between teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, and their willingness to include children with visual impairments in the regular classroom. Those teachers that supported inclusion in principle, also supported it in practice. Teachers in this study were generally in favour of including partially-sighted pupils and against including those with more severe visual impairments.

Perhaps if the attitudes of teachers could be changed, for example, education about the nature of visual impairment and the abilities of children with visual impairment as well as equipping teachers with the skills they feel they lack, including children with a wider range of visual impairments would perhaps be possible. On the other hand, Villa *et al* pose the question: "To what extent do beliefs lead to changes in educational practice?" (1996:42)

Several teachers mentioned finances as a concern. They expressed concern that they might be "dumped" with the children with no support, that special education teachers would lose their jobs, and that ultimately both the teachers and the children with special needs would suffer. This is in line with the findings by Semmel *et al* that teachers "believe that resources currently earmarked for specific special education services are appropriate and in need of protection" (1991:19).

Caution should be exercised in generalising from a small, unrepresentative sample. It appears that teachers are willing to teach at least those pupils with mild degrees of visual impairment. As in Semmel *et al's* (1991) study, regular education teachers believed that students with mild disabilities have a basic right to an education within the regular classroom. This finding is positive in two senses: (1) Villa *et al* (1996) point out that teacher commitment is critical to the implementation of innovations such as these, and (2) Villa *et al* report that "teacher commitment often emerged at the end of the implementation cycle, after the teachers had gained mastery of the professional expertise needed to implement the new innovation" (1996:30). In other words, "teachers' negative or neutral attitudes at the beginning of an innovation such as heterogenous or inclusive education may change over time as a function of experience and the expertise that develops through the process of implementation" (Villa *et al*, 1996:30).

Teachers in this study were already favourable towards inclusion and prepared to include children with mild visual disabilities in their classes. Villa *et al's* work would imply that after experience with these pupils, teachers would also gradually become committed to including pupils with more severe disabilities. It is interesting that teachers in the present study had no educationally motivated, ideological objections to inclusion. Rather, they advanced ideological reasons in favour of including the child with disability. Perhaps this can be explained in the climate of heightened political awareness in South Africa. All the objections to such practices were based on practical concerns - finances, resources, support, demands on time, workloads. In contrast, in Semmel *et al's* (1991) study, teachers also listed objections such as the belief that the placement of students with disabilities into the classroom would negatively effect the distribution of instructional classroom time, that placement of students with disabilities would have negative social effects. The teachers of this study saw inclusion as educationally and ideologically sound, but practically difficult.

The question still stands however, as to how this could be implemented?

The implications of this study are that several fears of the teachers need to be taken into account and that teachers will require training and support if inclusion is to occur successfully.

Salend's findings emphasise the importance of teacher training not only to impart skills that could assist in accommodating diversity, but also because training influences attitudes and "teacher attitude has been identified as critical variables in the success of mainstreaming" (1984:412).

Many teachers of the visually impaired in South Africa have little training over and above the training received in their regular teacher training courses, and most teacher training institutions are moving toward teaching a greater range of instructional methods, methods that are aimed toward accommodating diversity to a greater extent. In-service training courses would be an essential practice in equipping teachers with the confidence (and skills) to cope with challenges.

Salend (1984) believes that teachers in training and practising teachers will need group discussions, exploration of sources of prejudice toward disability, presentation of information on impairment and indirect contact with children with impairments. Engelbrecht and Forlin comment that, "There is a need to develop suitable programs which incorporate a clear philosophical vision of inclusion as a warm embracing attitude that requires accepting and accommodating others unconditionally and without preconditions" (1997:10).

Bishop (1986) points out that available support personnel and adequate supplies and equipment are instrumental to the success of inclusion. Orlansky (1980) suggests that regular education teachers need access to special educators in order to assist them in planning and evaluating. Whilst this may seem problematic in South Africa, we argue that if inclusion were implemented on a wider basis in South Africa, teachers from the disbanded special schools could become consultants to regular schools in which the pupils are placed. The National Commission on Special Needs and Educational Training (1997) recommend that education support personnel at special schools should actively seek ways to engage in providing services beyond their own schools. They should integrate and coordinate these services with other service providers. In this way, personnel at the special schools would form part of a local pool of resources. Their roles would change and their services would be extended to a broader community.

For such a venture to occur in South Africa, both special education and regular education teachers need the assurance that the reorganisation or disbanding of special schools and a move towards consultancy would not be used as an excuse to freeze posts and retrench staff. In other words, support is an essential ingredient. As Silver points

out, “you cannot move children with special needs into the regular classrooms unless you provide these children and teachers with the necessary special educational professionals and services to meet their needs” (Green *et al*, 1995:3). In developing countries, where the “necessary” professionals and services are unlikely to be provided in the foreseeable future, the question arises whether inclusive education is feasible. Reports from several developing countries suggest that it is possible to provide a worthwhile education without the resources which western commentators consider essential (UNESCO, 1994). The major emphasis of the Salamanca Statement in this regard, was that the restructuring and reform of the school system, rather than an elaborate support service, would make the inclusion of all the world’s children possible.

Conclusion

The inclusion of children with visual impairments into regular schools in South Africa needs to be implemented and evaluated to determine its desirability and practicality. As Green *et al* comments, “Research is needed to explore the effectiveness of mainstreaming learners with difficulties into South African multicultural classrooms, which are already rich in cultural and linguistic diversity” (1995:4). Fuchs and Fuchs, writing in America, voice similar concerns, asking, “How can the mainstream improve so dramatically to incorporate an increase in diversity when it has such obvious difficulty accommodating the student diversity it already has?” (1994:302)

On the other hand, Green *et al* go on to say that there is widespread agreement that schools and the curriculum in South Africa must be changed, and that this, then, is “an opportunity to reexamine the aims of education in the light of the values which communities wish to promote. It would be disastrous to permit the adoption of a new curriculum which, yet again, ignores the developmental needs of many children” (1995:4). In conclusion, it seems that the debate around inclusive education must consider at the same time what is desirable and what is possible in the South African context. The aim should be, as Fuchs and Fuchs advocate, to strengthen the mainstream as well as other educational opportunities that can provide more intensive services, to enhance the learning and lives of all children (1994:304). Such change will realistically, and most sensibly, take time. As Ainscow says: “Moving practice forward...necessitates a careful balance of maintenance and development” (1995:13).

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MEETING SPECIAL NEEDS IN AN UMLAZI PRIMARY SCHOOL, KWAZULU-NATAL

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Introduction

It may be three years after the country's first democratically elected government took over, but the heritage of the past government's policy of separate and unequal educational provision is still with us and will be for years to come. It is because of the country's history that many African children are not benefiting from the educational provision, either because they are not at school or school is just failing to meet their educational needs.

The Rationale for this Paper

For 10 years I, the author of this paper, worked at a school for learners with severe learning difficulties situated some 110 metres away from an Umlazi primary school. In that period, not once did they approach our school for information, skills or any other resource and this always made me wonder how they deal with learning difficulties. Naturally, my curiosity increased when research evidence pointed to the following:

- nearly 3 million African children have special needs in education.
- special schools can only accommodate a small percentage of those in need of the service.
- African primary schools are unintentionally integrated.

Conditions in KwaZulu-Natal's African Schools

Green (1991) believes that special educational needs are widespread in black primary schools where all children have been, for many years, unintentionally integrated because of resource shortages. In these historically disadvantaged schools where basic health screening is inadequate and health services leave much to be desired, she argues that many common, curable health problems remain unidentified and may, as a result, cause learning difficulties. She also maintains that many children with mild to moderate learning difficulties, of short or long term duration, are often assigned to large classes where it is common practice to retain them three or more times.

This is confirmed by Donald (1992) whose study concluded that there are nearly three million black children with special needs in South African schools. The development of these needs in education, he maintains, can be influenced by organic and/or environmental factors. If nearly 40% of black school-going age children are affected, it is reasonable to assume that some of them attend school in Umlazi primary schools.

Generally, educating learners with special needs in the mainstream supposes that teachers possess information and skills to develop and implement appropriate educational programmes. Otherwise, if the curriculum remains inaccessible, pupils are likely to perform badly or even fail (Galloway, 1985).

If the claims that only 55% of African teachers employed in KwaZulu-Natal schools have standard education and a teaching qualification and claim that educational provision in African schools in this province is among the poorest in the country (Louw and Bagwandeem, 1992) are valid, surely these factors have serious implications in the way children are taught and supported to face the demands of the curriculum.

Teaching for diversity at Osizweni¹ Primary School

There are 39 female teachers (principal included) and 1140 pupils. There was no deputy nor a head of department until July 1997. Six teachers have a two-year teacher qualification and four have a degree in addition to the three-year teaching qualification. All teachers are in the process of furthering their studies, either professionally or academically. Senior primary teachers (grades 4-7) teach two or three subjects (specialisation) whereas in the junior section, the class teacher teaches everything. The smallest class has 48 pupils and the largest has 60. There are no learners with visible disabilities. The school has no administrative assistant, no caretaker/ general assistant, no library, no laboratory, no staff room, no offices for the deputy and head of department, no school hall, no sick/rest room, no soccer/net ball fields.

The sample consisted of twenty teachers, twelve teaching in the senior section and eight in the junior section. They were not randomly selected, but those teaching in the senior grades who had free periods were used and from the junior grades those who could combine their groups to free each other were included. The interview questions focused on everyday classroom practice in relation to pupil performance as well as on support available to improve teacher competence and content delivery.

All teachers confirmed that the method of instruction most frequently used is chalk and talk. All those interviewed (100%) agreed that sometimes learners experience difficulties in their interaction with the curriculum. Some to the extent that they fail to keep up with the majority of their classmates and are retained twice or more. The causes for difficulties in learning, cited by most teachers, were below average intelligence (89%), poor concentration (73%), lack of motivation (65%) and family background (48%). Regarding pupil support offered, most teachers (70%) do try to help during the lesson although this is not always possible because of large class size. They also feel that their attempts to help do not get the desired results. Some of the reasons cited for failure to give adequate support were that there is no time for individual attention (89%), classes are too large (80%), not trained to do it (75%) and the fact

¹ The name has been changed to protect the school.

that the time table is rigidly structured and does not allow for withdrawal of pupils for extra tuition (69%). Only 20% said they sometimes ask colleagues for tips to help pupils experiencing barriers to learning.

Findings and Discussion

The results of the study can be summarised as follows:

- Learners with special needs are identified.
- Teachers do not know how to meet learners' special needs.
- Learners experiencing difficulties in learning are often retained.
- Collaboration among teachers is erratic.
- There is no school policy on how to address learning difficulties.
- Initial training does not prepare teachers for a supportive role.
- In-set is also not enabling teachers to support all learners.

It became quite clear that even those teachers with adequate qualifications lack skills on identification and intervention, skills that the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC, 1987) saw as essential when working with learners with special needs. Early identification of special needs should be used to prevent the development of further difficulties and should also be seen as the initial stage in the process of meeting learners' educational needs (Ainscow and Tweddle, 1979). However, they caution against the danger of early identification influencing teachers' expectations of pupils, thus making failure a self-fulfilling prophesy (*ibid.*).

There was no evidence of organised professional support that teachers receive, either from management or their colleagues, except for traces of informal collaboration between friends. The principal cannot be blamed for the absence of school-based staff development if she had no deputy or head of department to assist her in managing the school.

The Department of Education seldom calls teachers for in-service training and when it does, it does not establish what their training needs are beforehand. Often, they are taught skills that do very little, if anything at all, to improve their ability to teach all learners effectively.

Johnson and Johnson (cited in Ainscow 1994) see some schools as individualistically structured, encouraging teachers to work in isolation. Such organisation, they maintain, creates no opportunity for sharing expertise and very little support for individuals is offered; whereas in cooperatively structured schools, a culture that helps teachers take responsibility for the learning of all their pupils is provided (*ibid.*). Osizweni staff acknowledges the need to work as a team for the benefit of pupils but

they do not get any encouragement from the school's management. When this study was conducted, the principal was the only manager, and was responsible for all administrative and professional management of the school. The absence of a staff room also makes it difficult to convene a staff meeting, even for general matters.

Nonetheless, Dessent (1987) believes that it is virtually impossible for an individual teacher to begin to address pupils' special needs alone. Instead, there is always a need for staff to communicate and support each other in attempts to meet pupils' special needs. The main advantage of school-based support as he sees it, is that the task of providing adequate education for all learners becomes that of the whole school, whereas if help comes from outside, teachers see it as the responsibility of someone else and then do nothing about it (ibid.).

Sometimes pupils' learning difficulties are discussed and now and then strategies are shared on an informal basis (35%). Since they do not know of any special school to refer these pupils to, they are usually retained several times before being promoted to the next class, while some simply drop out. It has never occurred to them that they can collaborate with the neighbouring special school to teach those learners 'at risk'. It is for this reason that Hegarty (1994) challenges schools to take responsibility for the professional development of their own staff. He maintains that if teachers lack adequate levels of competence, many learners will receive an education of a questionable standard (ibid.). Therefore, the need to provide in-service training relevant to all teachers' working conditions while also encouraging schools to foster collective accountability for the success or failure of all learners cannot be overemphasised (Framework for Action on Special Needs Education in Saleh, op. cit.).

The majority feel inadequately equipped to give adequate support to learners who experience barriers in the curriculum for one reason or another (80%). This general feeling of helplessness is caused by:

1. failure of initial training to prepare them to teach all children effectively.
2. failure of the department (old and new) to audit needs before designing inset courses. As a result, they view inset as a waste of time and money.
3. lack of parental involvement in education.

Initial teacher training in South Africa still focuses on what Hegarty (1994) defines as the traditional view of the nature of learning difficulties which defines difficulties in terms of learner characteristics. Underlying this view is the assumption that some learners are defective and learn differently, therefore they need specialist teachers to teach them in separate special schools (ibid.). An alternative view has emerged. This paradigm shift sees learning difficulties as resulting from the interaction of innate factors and environmental factors such as, inappropriate educational provision, unsuit-

able teaching and assessment standards and understimulation (Hegarty, (op. cit.); Saleh, 1996). The alternative curriculum view to learning difficulties stresses the importance of teachers' attitudes, knowledge and skills in the provision of quality education for all learners.

Ten years ago, the reluctance of African parents to involve themselves in the education of their children was documented by the HSRC (1987). The truth, however, is that teachers are not trained to work with parents and some parents are timid to approach schools. It is understandable that some parents are illiterate and may feel threatened by the school and teachers. Others, on the other hand, just refuse to cooperate because "it is the teachers' job to teach, they are paid to do it." In cases where parents are cooperative, positive results are achieved but such cases are rare.

In order for their school to be fully prepared to adequately address special needs, teachers felt that the following characteristics of their school need attention:

- class size to conform to the national norm.
- period structure to become flexible.
- support service (school-based and departmental) to address teachers' needs.
- parental involvement to be encouraged.

Conclusion

When the new government came into power in 1994 and one equitable education system was introduced, black parents expected drastic changes in the education of their children but the reality is that the real needs of a large number of learners are still unmet. Schools that had no human or physical resources before are still without.

Six weeks into the academic school year, Umlazi schools had not yet received stationery. Primary schools in this township still did not have posts of deputies, heads of departments nor that of administrative assistants until end of June 1997, in spite of the fact that the department failed to utilise R6,7 million in the 1996/7 financial year (Arde, 1997).

It is clear that teachers at Osizweni Primary School and other primary schools are aware of diversity but feel helpless because there is no support either in the form of sensitising teachers to diversity, increasing their confidence to teach all pupils or flexibility of the curriculum.

The new curriculum, "Curriculum 2005" expected to transform how South African children learn, may be a possible breakthrough to this vicious circle of poor quality teaching and high drop-out and failure rates. It is generally agreed that the need to change our education system is urgent, especially how it is viewed, resourced and de-

livered. However, we need to transform the whole system, not only parts of it, if we want to ensure that all children have equal access. Supposing Curriculum 2005 has potential, is our present school system (teachers in particular) prepared to see it through? Just wondering.

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**THE PREPARATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATORS IN
SCHOOL-BASED SETTINGS: PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS,
LESSONS LEARNED, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

*Greg Prater, Ph.D., Emma Mae Savage-Davis, Ed.D., Carol Fuhler, Ed.D.,
Lori Marks, Ph.D., and Sam Minner, Ph.D.*

Abstract

School-based teacher preparation programs serve the dual purposes of preparing excellent teachers and improving K-12 schools. In this paper, we describe five school-based special education teacher preparation programs operated by the Center For Excellence In Education at Northern Arizona University. These programs are the Rural Special Education Program, the Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative, the Praxis Program, the Nogales Partnership Program, and the Pinon Partnership Program. Though designed to capitalize upon the needs and strengths of each school, the programs share several important features. All of them are designed to provide preservice special education teachers with a multitude of professional experiences under carefully supervised conditions, all are designed to insure that preservice teachers experience the full range of student diversity they are likely to encounter in their professional practices, and all are designed to strengthen the schools in which they are housed. We discuss the key factors associated with the successful planning and implementation of school-based programs including the critical importance of personnel, careful planning, administrative support, and contextualization of programs. We conclude by suggesting that school-based special education preparation programs should be considered by professionals interested in overall improvements in the education profession.

Among the many reforms being discussed in teacher education, the notion of preparing teachers within the context of functioning schools is one of the most widely discussed and debated (Lapan & Minner, 1997). Such programs are referred to in the literature as Professional Development Schools (PDSs), school-university partnerships, and school-based teacher preparation programs. The Holmes Group (1990), the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986), and the RAND Corporation (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1987) all suggest that one very powerful way to prepare good teachers is to insure that they receive intensive practical experience under carefully supervised conditions in real schools, with real learners, and in collaboration with experienced teachers. Others have suggested that these arrangements not only prepare good teachers, they also benefit the participating schools in varied and meaningful ways (Goodlad, 1988, 1990). For example, participating schools gain additional human resources by virtue of their partnership with a college or university. University

faculty members and numerous novice teachers are at the school-site, often on a daily basis, typically at no cost to the school. There may be an increased interchange of ideas at the school (Minner, Varner, and Prater, 1995) and the overall level of professionalism at the school site may be increased (Wall, Rodger, Brady, and Davies, 1997). There is a growing body of evidence that school-based teacher preparation programs are effective. Varner and Ver Velde (1995) found that teachers prepared within a school-based program graduated with a high level of confidence, remained in the profession over time, and were perceived by their supervisors (e.g., principals and others) as well-prepared and competent. Brown (1994) found that teachers prepared in a school-based setting began their careers with a good understanding of school culture and well-prepared to instruct diverse learners. Prater, Miller, and Minner (1997) suggested that school-based programs were a good way of recruiting minority teachers into the profession. They found that teacher preparation programs housed at a local school which was familiar to minority students and located in their home community, provided social supports which allowed them to graduate from the program at a very high rate. Additional support for school-based teacher preparation programs has been provided by Miller and Silvernail (1994), Grossman (1994), Snyder (1994), and Lemlech, Hertzog-Foliart, and Hackl (1994).

The numerous advantages of preparing teachers in school-based settings prompted us to develop a number of special education teacher preparation programs in the Center For Excellence in Education (CEE) at Northern Arizona University (NAU). Though developing and maintaining these partnerships has not been easy, we believe they have been extremely beneficial in many ways. We believe that the teachers graduating from these programs are very well-prepared. Our perspective on teacher preparation has been changed, and we believe changed for the better, by virtue of our participation in these programs. Our scholarly work has become more applied and more grounded. The work has been intellectually engaging and satisfying. Furthermore, we believe that these programs have been beneficial to the schools with which we have collaborated. We have seen many signs of organizational and cultural changes in the schools and in many cases, these changes have resulted in tangible benefits to the teachers and ultimately the children in them.

In this paper, we describe the several special education school-based partnerships we support at NAU. We also discuss the lessons we have learned in these partnerships over the years and provide some direction for others considering this work.

Descriptions Of School-Based Programs At Northern Arizona University

We operate five school-based teacher preparation programs which prepare special educators at Northern Arizona University; the Rural Special Education Program (RSEP), the Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative (RMTC), the Praxis Program (PP), the Nogales Partnership Program (NPP), and the Pinon Partnership Program (PPP). Though

each program is unique, all share some common features. All are school-based in public elementary, middle, and or secondary schools. All are designed to provide hundreds of hours of practical experience to our students under the direction of NAU faculty members and mentor teachers at each site. All are designed to insure that our students are immersed in both the theory and practice of schooling and all are also designed to insure that students are well-prepared for the diversity they will encounter in their professional practices. Approximately one-hundred special education teachers per year are prepared in these programs. An exceptionally high percentage of them (approximately 65%) are ethnic minorities.

The Rural Special Education Program

The oldest school-based special education program we operate is the Rural Special Education Program. The RSEP is a partnership between the Center For Excellence In Education at Northern Arizona University and the Kayenta Unified School District. We have received considerable support for this program from the United States Department of Education (Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services) and the Navajo Department of Education. Kayenta is a small town located on the Navajo Reservation in Northeastern Arizona. Though quite small and rather remote, Kayenta is a popular tourist destination as it is very near the beautiful Monument Valley area, a remote region of towering spires, incredible desert vistas, and unusual rock formations.

The purpose of the RSEP is to prepare special educators for service in rural and remote areas and to Native American families. Each year a group of students from the NAU home campus are selected for the program and join a group of students residing in the Kayenta area (mostly Native American people who are working as teacher-aides) to form a cohort. The students from the campus reside in apartments owned by the local school district and live in the Kayenta community for an entire academic year. They work in local classrooms each morning under the supervision of mentor teachers and a Program Manager (an NAU faculty member who also resides in Kayenta). Each afternoon, students complete their teacher preparation classes in a classroom which is also donated to the project by the local school district. Native American participants are typically permitted to retain their teacher-aide positions in the mornings. They join the campus students each afternoon to complete their formal training. Classes are taught by the resident Program Manager, a Faculty Liaison (an NAU faculty member who drives to Kayenta on a weekly basis), and other faculty members from the home campus and experts from the local community. Some classes are delivered to RSEP students by way of an interactive television link from the home campus. Classes are highly contextualized in this program. For example, when students are studying assessment and evaluation of children, much time is spent discussing the instruments and procedures used in the local school. When methods of data collection are discussed in class, students often practice the techniques in their practicum setting the following

day. Native American students are also encouraged to serve as cultural advisors to the Anglo students who, in many cases, have had minimal experiences with Native American culture and traditions. In this program, we have made many special efforts to engage the students in a wide variety of professional experiences such as presentations at professional meetings and publications in journals.

The RSEP collaboration has been mutually beneficial to both NAU and the Kayenta Unified School District. Data indicates that Anglo students learn powerful professional and personal lessons in the program (Brown, 1994) and perhaps most critically, students, including Native American students, graduate from the program at a very high rate. Since many Native American students in the RSEP have homes and families in Kayenta or some other rural town nearby, most of them remain in those communities after graduation and go on to secure teaching positions in local schools. In this way, the critical shortage of well-prepared teachers, particularly teachers knowledgeable of Native American culture, is alleviated.

The Rural Multicultural Training Collaborative

The RMTC is a joint venture involving the Center For Excellence In Education, Greyhills High School in Tuba City, Arizona, and several school districts in and near Yuma, Arizona, like the RSEP, the RMTC has been supported by a grant from the United States Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services. The principle goal of the RMTC is to prepare special educators to effectively work with Native American and Hispanic students and families, especially those residing in rural and remote areas. A group of students from the home campus reside each fall term in Tuba City, Arizona, a small community on the Navajo Reservation located about fifty miles from the NAU campus. Like students in the RSEP, the RMTC students reside in apartments owned by the local school. The RMTC students are joined each fall term by a group of Native American participants, typically individuals who have been employed as teacher-aides. The RMTC program is patterned after the RSEP model—all participants work in local classrooms each morning and complete their teacher preparation programs in the afternoons. Classes are taught by a resident and on-site Program Manager, a Faculty Liaison, and other experts from the home campus and the local community. Some instruction is delivered by way of an interactive television system linking the home campus with Greyhills High School. After completing the fall term, the students from the home campus go to Cuernavaca, Mexico for an intensive Spanish immersion program. Immediately after that component of the program, the students go to Yuma, Arizona to continue their studies. While in Yuma, students reside in dormitories operated by a community college, work in local schools near the border each morning, and complete their teacher preparation classes in the afternoons. The Program Manager also travels with the students to Cuernavaca as well as to Yuma. In Yuma, the campus students are joined by a cohort of Hispanic students

who work in the local schools as teacher-aides. By reversing the order of classes each calendar year, the native American students complete the program over two fall terms while the Hispanic students complete the program over two spring terms. Campus students complete the program in two consecutive semesters (a fall and a spring term). All participants in this program have learned powerful cultural lessons. Students have attended Native American ceremonies, worked in schools adjacent to migrant-worker camps, and learned some Navajo and Spanish. In addition to a full complement of classes, each RMTC participant devotes a minimum of 600 hours of service to local schools.

Like the RSEP, participants in the RMTC graduate and secure positions in rural, remote, and other schools with significant recruitment and retention difficulties. The program completion rate of minority students in this program is nearly 100%. Administrators and teachers in participating schools report that having RMTC students and faculty in their classrooms has been extremely helpful to them and their students. Other schools frequently request that we collaborate with them using an RMTC model.

The Praxis Program

For education majors seeking dual certification in both elementary and special education in a school-based program, the Praxis Program is their option. This relatively young collaboration between the CEE and the Flagstaff Unified School District welcomed its first cohort in the fall of 1994. Required courses are taught on site at Weitzel Elementary School in a classroom totally devoted to the PP. Students who select this powerful educational opportunity take three semesters of coursework followed by a traditional semester of student teaching. During the last semester, however, the teaching time is split between a regular classroom and a special education placement. While a few of the Praxis students choose to remain at Weitzel to student teach, the majority of them select schools throughout the state in an effort to broaden their applied experiences. Immersed in the elementary school world, these Praxis undergraduates quickly learn the realities of being a teacher.

A typical day for these students begins at 8:00 a.m. as they head to their K-8 classroom placements for a morning of on-the-job training. Students work with children and are supervised by their partner teacher and a member of the NAU faculty team assigned to the partnership. Praxis students spend approximately three hours per day, four days per week working with children. During the three semesters, each Praxis student experiences five different classroom placements. One is in a special education setting, either in the elementary school or next door at a junior high school. Because the number of special education classrooms has decreased at Weitzel since Praxis began, there was a need to place some Praxis students at the junior high site. Of course, this adjustment has allowed many Praxis students to gain experience at the junior high level.

Afternoons are spent back in the Praxis classroom where university classes are taught by both elementary and special education faculty. One special aspect of this program is that the principal of Weitzel is also one of the instructors in the program. This presents a unique opportunity for the students to get an inside view of school administration. Between the classroom practicum and the 16-17 semester hour course load, Praxis students have full days, indeed.

Not every day looks alike in this program, as Friday schedules vary depending on the semester. Ordinarily, two Friday mornings per month are set aside for special speakers who come in to broaden the students' knowledge about topics such as state politics, creative arts, adjusting instruction to meet the needs of different cultures, and tactics to deal with stress. Students also complete a course in educational technology which is taught on the home campus where lab facilities are more complete than those at the Praxis site.

The term praxis refers to a method of combining theory and practice where one informs and supports the other in a continually evolving learning process (Fuhler and Carey, 1997). Tied closely to this approach is individual reflection. Students in the program are encouraged to reflect on their classroom experiences as they develop the skills, knowledge base, and dispositions necessary to be a well-prepared teacher. Reflection upon the theories taught in elementary and special education courses is imperative as well. Propelled by reflection, practical classroom experiences and college instruction are blended, honed, and finely polished as individual educational philosophies begin to take shape. Thus, praxis as a practice is reflected in the name of this program.

Two cohorts have completed the program to date, while the third begins student teaching next fall term. Common reactions from students as they complete their four semesters are that they are exceptionally pleased to have weathered the high demands of the program and that they feel very confident as they begin their careers. They all experienced the "butterflies" that accompany their first job, but many of the Praxis students have already experienced great success prior to student teaching. In the process of preparing Praxis students to become quality teachers, teachers at Weitzel have benefited by having additional adults in their classrooms. College faculty also benefit from this arrangement as they watch the theory and practices they have taught implemented in an authentic setting.

The Nogales Partnership Program

One of our newest school-based teacher preparation programs is the Nogales Partnership Program, located on the Arizona-Mexico border in Nogales, Arizona. This program, sometimes referred to the "La Frontera Program", is designed to prepare special and elementary education teachers for service in border schools. The program

recruits preservice teachers at the freshman or sophomore level. Students complete their liberal studies preparation either at a four-year institution or at local community colleges. They then enter the school-based component of their preparation. Housed in a school a few yards from the border, students spend approximately six hours per day (five days per week) in the program. The program includes a significant practicum component whereby students work in local classrooms under the supervision of mentor teachers and NAU faculty members. Two faculty members from our home campus lead the program and reside in the Nogales area. Special features of the program include a highly integrated curriculum and a special focus on the needs of and issues related to serving Hispanic children and families. We have made a special effort to recruit Hispanic students into this program who, we hope, will ultimately assume leadership positions in their local schools. We are now just in the first year of this program.

The Pinon Partnership Program

Another of our new partnership programs is the Pinon Partnership Program (PPP). Located on the Navajo Reservation and adjacent to the Hopi Reservation, Pinon is a small but growing community in Northeast Arizona. Pinon is about a four hour drive from the main campus. There is only one paved road into Pinon. If the weather is accommodating, the driving time can be reduced by taking alternate routes over several miles of dirt roads. The PPP is a partnership between NAU and the Pinon Unified School District. This project is funded by a sub-contract from Pinon Schools which received funding from a Title VII grant from the United States Department of Education. The participants in the project are all Native Americans and all but two participants are teacher-aides employed by the local schools. Students in the program make a two-year commitment to the program. During this period, students complete all of the classes needed to be certified in both elementary and special education. All courses are completed on-site. In the first three semesters of the program, students complete classes in foundations, methods, assessment, and curriculum. In their final semester, students complete student teaching. Participants who are teacher-aides work in classrooms until about 1:30 p.m. They then attend their university classes until about 5:00 p.m. Most classes are taught by an on-site Project Manager who lives in Pinon. This individual is also responsible for supervision of the students while they complete their in-classroom practica. Approximately every other week, a faculty member from the home campus goes to Pinon and teaches classes, consults with the Program Manager, and serves as an additional mentor to the participants.

Lessons Learned From School-Based Programs

The experiences we have had planning, implementing, maintaining, and revising the school-based special education teacher preparation programs at Northern Arizona University have taught us many lessons. School-based work is difficult. It can be time

consuming, anxiety producing, and clearly, it is not well-suited for faculty and/or administrators who desire highly predictable and relatively uncomplicated work environments. Truly collaborative programs, of any type, require greater energy, especially in the early stages of the collaborative effort, than one planned, managed, and maintained by a single agency. However, we feel that the increased efforts associated with this type of collaborative work are well worth the additional resources and highly recommend that other institutions of higher education and local schools seriously consider developing a school-based program which reflects their relative strengths and needs. We do offer several suggestions for those considering such a program:

Critical Importance Of Personnel

The quality of the people working in educational settings is always of great importance. Bright and hard working faculty can improve the chances of any new program being successful. Likewise, smart and dedicated teachers can overcome many barriers (e.g., lack of funding, poor physical facilities) and lead classrooms which promote the high academic achievement of the learners in them. However, in our experience, the faculty working in school-based programs must be very carefully selected. Unfortunately in our experience, a relatively small number of higher education faculty are well-suited to this work. Minner, Varner, and Prater (1995) suggested that "...faculty who have difficulties working on teams and/or behaving in a highly collegial manner have problems in school-based settings...". They suggested that the faculty most likely to succeed in these settings are well-grounded in theory and practice, honor the wisdom that practitioners bring to discussions about educational practice, and possess highly refined interpersonal skills. As these authors suggest, the "...wrong faculty member can wreak havoc ..." in a school-based program and "...the right faculty member can make...a program work...".

Careful Planning

We have found that teachers and administrators at many schools are interested in collaborating with us to establish school-based preparation programs and the initial and continuing support of those at the school site is a critical variable in the ultimate success of the program. However, school-based work is complex and perhaps unfortunately, those in institutions of higher education and those working in K-12 schools are rarely accustomed to working together in a truly collaborative way. Consequently, some of our early attempts at founding school-based programs were characterized by miscommunications, false starts, and misunderstandings. Though every attempt to minimize these issues should be made, they will probably occur to some degree. They are common by-products of nearly any innovation, particularly one as complex as the development of a school-based teacher preparation program. From our perspective, one way to reduce these barriers is to proceed slowly. Though we have sometimes been so excited by the prospect of establishing a program at a new site that we pursued the

program aggressively and quickly, we have found that a realistic timeline regarding the establishment of such a program is about eighteen months. Our experience suggests that an appropriate timeline includes an initial meeting involving university faculty members and K-12 school personnel where the very broad parameters of the partnership are discussed as well as the potential benefits to each party. Several months later, and assuming both parties remain interested in the concept, another meeting is held (possibly several meetings) where the design of the program is discussed (e.g., where will the program be located?, how long will the program be?, etc.). We have found that this series of meetings is best preceded by some reading of school-based program descriptions and other material related to school-based work. Typically, other meetings take place involving administrators at both sites who determine important fiscal and administrative features of the program (e.g., who will pay for what). We have found that it is important to hold these various meetings at both sites—the university and the local school. This symbolizes the importance of collaboration and the different, but equal, strengths both groups bring to the discussion. In the case of one of our school-based programs, we offered teachers at the school site a special class pertaining to PDSs and other school partnerships. Teachers in the class not only became informed of the critical issues related to school-based work, they earned additional graduate level hours which helped them gain salary increases in the district.

Administrative Support

We have had very limited success with school-based work unless the key decision makers on the university campus and at the local school site are strongly supportive of the concept. Support for the collaborative effort (financial support, support of the personnel involved, philosophical support, etc.) must be sustained by these individuals. This support must be present in the early stages of planning and development and perhaps most critically, it must continue when the inevitable problems associated with collaborative work occur. In our experience, some administrators simply cannot or will not sustain support for these programs during difficult times. They long for the traditional model of professional work where university faculty members remain on their campuses to prepare teachers and practicing teachers work in their local schools and concern themselves exclusively with the children in their classrooms. We have also experienced some problems with school-based programs when administrators are overly concerned with equality across programs. For example, sometimes school-based programs require additional support (personnel, operations support, etc.) in order to overcome some difficulty. Campus leaders who insist that all programs be treated equally have difficulty during these periods. Likewise, some K-12 school administrators are overly sensitive that the site where the school-based program is located will come to be viewed as receiving preferential treatment and simply prefer to keep all schools at the same level of support even if rather mediocre work is going on there. We have experienced success when administrators at both sites eventually reach a decision that the school-based program will be implemented and supported for a specific period of time (perhaps one or more, ideally, two cycles of students). After the specified time elapses,

both parties are free to evaluate the benefits of continued participation and opt to either continue the program as is, modify it, or withdraw from the collaborative effort.

Contextualization Of Programs

We have had most success in our school-based efforts when we have entered into collaborative arrangements with schools with the expectation that the program will be formatively evaluated and reflect the relative strengths and needs of the institution of higher education, as well as the school. It takes considerable energy and time to build a program in this way. Many discussions involving faculty from the university and administrators and teachers at the local site take place and differences in perspectives and opinions regarding what the program should be like and how it should work are common. Minner (1994) wrote of the “culture clash” when professionals from higher education and K-12 schools attempt to do serious and collaborative work such as the development of school-based teacher preparation programs. He suggested that:

“...meaningful collaborations between teachers and university faculty members can result in clashes, but they can also result in wonderful opportunities for all involved. The cultures of schools and institutions of higher education are different...a recognition of these differences and a commitment from all parties to try to work together can overcome them...” (p. 47).

Conclusions

We believe that school-based teacher preparation programs are an excellent way of preparing good teachers and when designed and managed appropriately, institutions of higher education as well as participating schools accrue benefits by virtue of these collaborations. Though we feel that virtually all universities and K-12 schools can benefit from this approach, we believe that some schools may particularly benefit from this model. For example, schools in countries plagued by a lack of resources may find that collaborating with a teacher preparation program provides overall assistance to the school to improve in very powerful and relatively inexpensive ways. Merely adding the human resources of a school-based preparation program to a school that is understaffed could make a difference, possibly a significant difference, in the learning that goes on there. Many of the problems associated with education in developing nations such as the incongruencies between teachers’ cultural beliefs and those imbedded in local schools (McLaughlin, 1996), teacher recruitment and retention problems (UNESCO, 1992) and curricular and pedagogical concerns (Rothenberg, 1996) may be addressed when teachers are prepared within the context of a functioning K-12 school and in collaboration with practitioners. Though we are strong proponents of school-based work, doing such work is not without risks and is almost always a complex and challenging enterprise. The personnel involved in school-based work are absolutely critical. Careful planning needs to be done prior to the implementation of

such a program. Administrators at both sites, the university as well as the school, must support the collaboration by both word and deed and programs should be highly contextualized to reflect the needs and strengths of each of the partners in the collaboration. Even giving careful attention to these details, however, will not insure that school-based preparation programs will be without problems, especially in the initial stages. Such programs are not for those unwilling to take risks and unwilling to work in highly ambiguous and complex systems. However, the potential advantages of such programs are great. We have found them to produce wonderful teachers and to be highly advantageous to both the schools and the universities involved. Additionally, we have found them to be among the most intellectually satisfying activities we have been a part of in our professional work. In the Foreword to the book "Professional Development Schools" (Darling-Hammond, 1994), Judith Lanier stated:

"...we need responsible innovation that is forged by responsible professionals. We need future teachers prepared by professionals that know and use best practice known to date. We need professional development schools-places where school and university faculty actually walk the talk in regard to best practice and applied study of students' learning...though risky and difficult like all worthy challenges, professional development schools are the right way to go..." (p. xii).

Our personal experiences with the school-based special education teacher preparation programs described in this paper support Lanier's assertion. Preparing teachers within the context of functioning K-12 schools and in active collaboration with teachers and other school professionals is indeed the way to go.

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**THE PREPARATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATORS IN
SCHOOL-BASED SETTINGS: PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS,
LESSONS LEARNED, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

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SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC: WHERE IT HAS BEEN AND WHERE IT WOULD LIKE TO GO

Sharon Raver, Ph.D., Milan Valenta, Paed. Dr., and Jaroslav Kysucan, Paed. Dr.

Abstract

The Czech Republic, known as Czechoslovakia before 1993, has undergone significant changes in its political, social, educational and economic systems since the turn of the century. Today, this newly independent, Eastern European nation is struggling to enter a market economy so it may compete with its Western European neighbors. Besides economic reconstruction, attempts are being made to reexamine, and in some instances, reconceptualize some social and educational structures. As one example, services for the disabled are being completely reorganized from personnel preparation to service delivery options. Although debates are often heated and the process slow, the Czech government appears to have a vision of how it would like services for citizens with disabilities to be by the end of the next decade. This article discusses the processes that have prompted such discussions and outlines the provisions that have been made for changing an educational system that has not experienced change for nearly 60 years.

As the welfare of children and adults with disabilities is accepted as a global concern, it becomes increasingly important for countries to disseminate information about their models, philosophies and future goals. Sharing this information can foster dialogue and partnerships which promote improved services for all people.

Until recently, Western countries have had inconsistent access to Eastern European programs. For example, despite a rather long history of serving students with special needs, information about Special Education in the Czech Republic (known as Czechoslovakia before 1993) has been limited. This small country, about the size of the state of Maine, is nestled between Austria, Germany, Poland, and Slovakia. In the last 100 years, Czechs have been governed by autocratic, communistic, and currently, parliamentary democratic governments. Since the Revolution of 1989, in which Czechoslovakia declared its independence from the Soviet Union, the Czech Republic has undertaken the process of methodically examining its political, social, educational, and economic systems. Although economic concerns have taken priority, substantial efforts have been directed toward reconceptualizing rights, services, and delivery systems for the disabled. This process of self-evaluation is continuing and will undoubtedly prompt significant changes in special education in the next decade. The assertive manner in which the process of change has been addressed might have been foreshadowed by the character of Czech history.

History of the Czech Republic

Czechoslovakia was formed in 1918. Before then, its constituent parts--Bohemia, Moravia, and Slovakia--experienced separate histories. Bohemia and Moravia were under the control of their German and Austrian neighbors. Slovakia was under the Hungarian crown. In the early days of Slav history, all three loosely formed the Great Moravian Empire. Before World War II, Czechoslovakia was a First World country. It had the tenth largest manufacturing base in the world. This was largely because it inherited about 70% of Austria-Hungary's industry after World World I (Polisensky, 1947).

In 1948, Czechoslavia came under Communist rule. All industry and social services were nationalized. Apparently due to the country's worsening economic stagnation, in 1963 the first rumblings of protest against hard-line communist leadership appeared in the official press. In 1968, in response to widespread dissatisfaction, a reform which later was referred to as "Prague Spring," was instituted. This reform permitted federalization, freedom of assembly and expression, and democratization of parliament. However, these liberalizations prompted the invasion of Czechoslovakia by Warsaw Pact forces shortly after they were enacted.

The opening of the Berlin Wall in November, 1989 left Czechoslovakia one of the few countries in Eastern Europe still clinging to the "old communist truths." But by the end of that year, Czechoslovakia, too, had ended its one party rule of Communism in a series of actions that were called the Revolution of 1989, or the "Velvet Revolution." Impressively, the separation from Communist control was achieved without bloodshed.

Continuing the pattern of change, in 1993 Czechoslovakia peacefully separated into two independent countries, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. These two democratic countries are now on good terms. Unlike most of Eastern Europe, the Czech Republic had a strong, interior democratic tradition which is now assisting its independence and economic recovery. Despite Communist economic mismanagement, today it has a relatively high standard of living, a skilled work force, and a manageable foreign debt (Meixnerova & Meixner, 1993).

History of Education in the Czech Republic

Cyril and Metodej, bishops from Greece, established the first system of education in The Great Moravian Empire in the second part of the ninth century (Kysucan, 1982). The tradition of compulsory, state supported education was established in 1774 by Marie Terezie, queen of the Austrian Empire. Her declaration included compulsory education for children and youth with disabilities as well. During those times, children with disabilities were commonly educated with nondisabled classmates.

Organization of Schooling

Today in the Czech Republic, children begin schooling at 6-7 years of age. Most students finish basic school by 15-16 years of age. Secondary school takes four years to complete and is roughly equivalent to grades 9-12 in the American school system. All secondary schools culminate in formal oral and written examinations.

There are several types of secondary schools. One type is technical schools which prepare students to work in technical areas. These schools provide training and apprenticeships in areas such as dairy farming, machinery and technical factory work. A second type is schools for the arts (e.g., music, performing arts, visual arts, film, etc.) and mechanical arts. Schools which specialize in commercial-academic areas such as economics, business, and transportation are a third type of secondary schools. Finally, there are grammar schools or gymnasiums. Only about 10-20% of the population attend gymnasiums which usually prepare selected students for university training.

SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

History

The views of Jan Amos Comenius (1592-1670) have closely shaped the Czech Republic's philosophy of education. In Comenius' often cited book, *Panpaedie*, he advocated the value of formal education for all citizens. He believed that students with disabilities could not be excluded and were equally deserving of an education (Kysucan, 1982). Although Comenius established general principles for education and stated the right to education for all students, he did not offer methodologies of instruction for students with special needs.

Philosophy

During the Communist era (particularly during the 1950-60's), the Communist ideology regarding disabilities was the only perspective encouraged. That ideology suggested that "defects" or disabilities were caused by problems within the social environment. It was stated that improvements in the social system would ultimately eliminate all disabilities.

Children and adults with disabilities were considered a taboo subject. The public was not encouraged to recognize their existence, nor discuss their needs. Several disabilities (for example, the severely retarded) were considered noneducable. Other exceptionalities, such as the profoundly/multiply handicapped and the deaf-blind, were not acknowledged as existing. Under the Communists, it was the practice to isolate children with disabilities into "special institutions," or "special schools" organized by disabilities. These institutions served, and continue to serve, children and youth with visual impairments and blindness, hearing impairments, physical handicaps, behavior disorders, and mental handicaps (Kysucan, 1982). They are small by American stan-

dards, rarely serving more than 200 children. It was the practice for the institutions to be routinely separated from the affairs of the communities in which they are located.

Because all schooling was state-controlled, the universities followed the same curriculum in training special educators (Cerna & Titzzi, 1993-94). Under the Communists, the prevailing philosophy followed a medical model so the objective of schooling was to address health needs and improve the comfort needs of children and youth with disabilities.

Since the Revolution of 1989, the philosophy toward training special educators and the model for educating children has begun to be reexamined for the first time in nearly 60 years. Today, there appears to be more emphasis on fostering higher degrees of independence, assisting adaptation to the mainstream culture and encouraging the public to accept, and acknowledge, others with disabilities into their everyday lives.

Interestingly, although they “did not exist” before the Revolution of 1989, today about 1000 deaf-blind students have been identified. Most had been living at home with their families because they had been excluded from services. Now educational programs are beginning to be developed for these pupils and others with severe and profound disabilities. Nonetheless, there is not widespread belief in the benefit of such programs in the educational community.

Other signs of change in the educational system are emerging, almost daily. Despite the fact that institutions continue to be residential, students are encouraged (in some cases, required) to spend weekends and holidays with their families. Additionally, a small number of private schools and private services (e.g., speech pathology) are being opened so families have a choice of keeping their children closer to home, rather than sending them to institutions which are often hours from their homes. However, just as quickly as a new school or service is opened, another is closed. Funding for these ventures continues to be a significant problem. Change is reflected in higher education as well.

Higher Education

In the Communist Czechoslovakia, universities were used as another tool for indoctrinating Communist ideology (Mestenhauser, 1991). In the words of Dr. Josef Jarab, Rector of Palacky University, “The ultimate goal of the regime was not just to spread the dogma as absolute truth, but to prevent critical thinking from being cultivated in schools.” (p. 7) Today, professors and administrators are attempting to reclaim universities as places in which original, critical and creative thinking are cultivated, as well as nurtured.

University Preparation of Special Educators

Teachers were required to have university training in 1948. Special education was introduced as a full-time degree program at Charles University, in Prague, and Palacky University, in Olomouc, in the middle 1960's. Today, these universities have different training programs for preparing classroom teachers and consultants. In addition, regional centers for training regular education teachers to work with children and youth with disabilities have been instituted since the revolution. These centers offer courses that focus on theory and methodology and usually take about two years of part-time training for teachers working in the schools.

Generally, special educators are now required to take four years of university study. Students may also take a five-year program which prepares them to teach children and youth with special needs, as well as specialize in one other area such as elementary education.

In the first year of study, students take basic courses in the sociology, philosophy and psychology of education, as well as basic education classes. Second-year students begin practica in regular classrooms, continue basic education, and take courses in medicine (e.g., neurology, psychiatry, physiology, etc). Third-year students take courses in law, specialty areas of special education (e.g., introduction, philosophy, methodology, etc.) and begin their practica in special schools. Specialty areas include Psychopedie, training teachers to serve students with mental handicaps; Logopedie, training teachers to serve children with speech and language disabilities; Somatopedie, training teachers to serve children with physical handicaps; Surdopedie, training teachers to serve children with hearing impairments; Etopedie, training teachers to serve children with behavior disorders; and lastly, Tyflopedie, training teachers to serve students with visual impairments.

All special education teachers take courses in Psychopedie because it is the largest disability and about half of the approximately 1,000 special schools in the Czech Republic are for children and youth with mental handicaps.

In the fourth year of study, students continue their specialized coursework (including classes in art therapy, social-personal skills, etc.), continue working in special schools and complete a written thesis on a subject of their choice. Students may also select several elective areas of study such as drama therapy, yoga, music therapy, orientation/mobility, and augmentative communication.

As with all Eastern European countries, appropriate textbooks, diagnostic materials and instructional materials/aids in the Czech language continues to be a problem for university faculty and professionals in the field. Most professors report morale has improved since the Revolution of 1989, although many fear low salaries will make it difficult to recruit quality professors and classroom teachers in the future.

Current National Goals for Citizens with Special Needs

The current process of change was spearheaded by new legislation, Law 399, which was passed in 1991. This law outlined a more flexible continuum of services for serving children, youth and adults with disabilities. For the first time in over 50 years, this law made the "social life" of individuals with disabilities an "open topic."

Most professionals today openly admit that they do not merely want to adopt models from the West, but wish to create a model that is sensitive to the Czech Republic's unique cultural history and resources. Apparently, not all professionals or individuals with disabilities seem to agree that Law 399 has achieved that.

The nation's goals were published in the booklet, Narodni Plan Opatreni Pro Snizeni Negativnich Dusledku Zdravotniho Postizeni (National Plan for Decreasing Negative Consequences of Health Impairments) (Government of the Czech Republic, 1993). Suggestive of the past medical orientation, the law addressed the needs of individuals with disabilities, as well as those with serious medical illness. The law made the following 16 major positions:

(1) *Records*. A system is to be established to maintain a more accurate record of the number and prevalence of individuals with special needs by disability and/or certain diseases.

(2) *Governmental Financial Support*. In 1994, adults with disabilities will receive some financial support. As with the United States, the amount is small and not sufficient for independent living.

(3) *Prevention and Cure*. Efforts will be made to decrease the incidence of genetic conditions through early diagnosis. The government will attempt to provide treatments and cures for chronic diseases when possible. Special centers for treatment of chronic diseases are to be opened.

(4) *Social Rehabilitation*. The government will create local centers for social rehabilitation for individuals with health diseases and exceptionalities. Special courses will be organized for youth and adults with disabilities and funds are to be provided for travel so family members can come to centers.

(5) *Technical Appliances*. A list of appliances/technical assistance available in the country will be developed. A center for engineering rehabilitative appliances will be created. Appliances should be distributed free of cost.

(6) *Education and Job Preparation*. The government is encouraged to create legislation for integration of children, youth and adults. (At present, teacher preparation is lagging behind the mandate of school mainstreaming).

(7) *Work Rehabilitation, Occupation and Protected Workshops.* The government is encouraged to develop more opportunities for employment of the disabled. The need to build protected or sheltered workshops for job training and employment are cited.

(8) *Remove Environmental Barriers.* All new buildings must be barrier-free. Buses and trams need to begin to make some accommodations for the disabled. Old public buildings must build ramps and handicapped bathrooms. New apartments need to be built with barrier-free construction. The government is encouraged to create supported apartments for adults with mental retardation and clients with psychiatric disorders. Additionally, more TV programs with signing interpretations is suggested. (Currently, the evening news has simultaneous sign interpretation).

(9) *Independent Living.* The government needs to create opportunities for independent living in the community for those with disabilities and health disorders.

(10) *Special Institutional Care for Individuals with Severe Retardation.* The government is encouraged to respect residents in institutions by offering adequate privacy, freedom to make decisions, appropriate activities, leisure activities and opportunities for sheltered work experiences. It is recommended that institutions become smaller and systematic efforts be made to integrate residents into the community.

(11) *Methods for Financing Services for Individuals with Health Impairments.* It is recommended that the government make institutions private as much as possible. A system is needed to control quality of services (including a system for inspection) and encourage donations for supporting new services.

(12) *Organization of Services for Citizens with Health Impairments.* A citizen's group for individuals with health impairments should be developed. This group should explore means of financing new services.

(13) *Professional Preparation.* The government must ensure that professionals have appropriate training and credentials. Secondary school and university opportunities for individuals with health impairments should be extended. Civil engineers and other specialists for creating barrier-free buildings and transportation systems need to be trained.

(14) *Improving Public Awareness.* The government must work toward positively changing public attitudes toward those with disabilities.

(15) *Leisure, Culture, and Sports.* Individuals with disabilities are to be encouraged to participate in national and international culture and sporting events. An association for individuals with health impairments needs to be developed to foster leisure, cultural and sports activities and events.

(16) *Legislation.* All new laws must view individuals with health impairments as equal citizens with the same rights as others.

Although Law 399 has money allocated for its implementation, professionals complain that funding is not adequate for implementing new programs and services adequately. On the surface, Law 399 sounds a good deal like the American law 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act. However, there are some differences in teaching practices.

Two practices warrant comment. First, there is a tradition for teachers to move from grade one to grade 5 with the same group of students in special education. Czech teachers comment that this arrangement allows them to build very strong emotional bonds with their students and their students with them. Second, teachers routinely take their classes on extended trips "into nature" several times a year. These trips might involve camping, skiing, or hiking excursions for periods of 3-14 days. Parents, or other volunteers, accompany classes for assistance. Both of these practices foster close relationships between teachers, students and families, and naturally extend learning into "real-life situations."

Conclusion

The people of the Czech Republic began the 1990's brimming with optimism about their future. Drawing on a strong democratic tradition, their transition from Communism has gone surprisingly smooth. Partly, this might be attributed to the fact that the country is now being run by economists. The new government's principle concern has been to transform an outdated command-system economy into a market economy which can compete on a world market. Reorganization and funding for social and educational services has trailed significantly behind economic redevelopment.

Despite the remarkable transition, there have been some expected negative consequences of the new government. Prices have escalated since the Revolution of 1989. This has been especially difficult since most workers' salaries have stayed the same or have been lowered. For the first time in nearly half a century, unemployment is emerging. A severe housing shortage continues. Due to Communist mismanagement, the country is environmentally undermined. Air pollution is an acknowledged health threat in most cities.

Despite these obstacles, special education in the Czech Republic is fearlessly attempting to enter the international community. Study-stay programs in other countries and in-country training from European countries are flooded with interested professionals. Although the principle of mainstreaming is beginning to be accepted intellectually, the concept still generates heated debates.

Nonetheless, most will agree that services are becoming more flexible and varied

than they have been in 60 years. In communist controlled schools, family involvement was discouraged. Today, discussion is beginning to focus on the benefits of family involvement and the need to make "special institutions" more family-oriented.

The process of self-examination and reconceptualization is evident in all categories of exceptionality. Although programs for students with mental retardation have traditionally encouraged creative expression (e.g., ceramics, sewing, painting, drama) and practical skills (e.g., farming, gardening), programs today are attempting to understand the need to market products to support their programs. Deaf education, which had prohibited manual communication since 1880, is now training teachers in Signing Czech Language and total communication. Since the revolution, problems with drug addiction, homelessness and the growing development of antisocial groups such as Skinheads have gotten the attention of government officials and are being addressed by those serving students with behavior disorders. For the first time, some multiple-handicapped and medically-fragile children are being included in the physically handicapped category, and consequently, are now eligible for services.

Despite these changes, and others which have been proposed, professionals in the field recognize the importance of modifying public opinion regarding the nature and value of those with disabilities. Before the Revolution of 1989, people with disabilities were rarely seen in society. They were surrounded by stigma and shame.

Today, private foundations seem to be taking the lead in attempting to change public attitudes. For example, The Olga Havel Foundation, founded by the Czech Republic's First Lady, offers humanitarian assistance to people with disabilities and chronic illness. As a policy, Mrs. Havel refuses to give interviews that do not mention her work with the foundation. Although the foundation cannot handle all requests it receives, it has made positive contributions toward changing pervasive negative images of those with disabilities (Lemonis, 1994).

The signs of change are evident nearly everywhere in the Czech Republic. Changing takes time, commitment and money. Changes require something else as well. Professionals and citizens with disabilities note that they expect changes in attitudes to be the most challenging arena they confront in the next decade.

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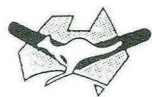
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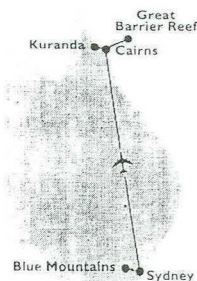
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SIXTH BIENNIAL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE
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**REDEFINING ASSESSMENT:
OBTAINING INFORMATION THAT IS RELEVANT
TO CURRICULAR INTERVENTIONS**

Dr. Stephen Viola, School Psychologist

ABSTRACT

The rationale for a functional approach to school psychological assessment is discussed in relation to the need for more valid, authentic, and contextual assessment techniques. Curriculum-Based Measurement and Learning Potential Assessment are examined as two attempts to address these requirements.

The Problems with Traditional Assessment Techniques

The traditional psychometric assessment model is characterized by testing, certification and labels. Bronfenbrenner (1977) cautioned about the pitfalls of an overemphasis on this approach when he said, "Much of American developmental psychology is the science of the strange behavior of children in strange situations with strange adults." Applying Bronfenbrenner's statement to school psychological assessment, psychologists and educators need to ask: "Are children assessed by asking them strange questions in a strange room with a strange examiner?" As Lauren Resnick (1990) suggests, the two key assumptions of conventional testing approaches are false. These false assumptions are: (a) knowledge is decomposable into discrete elements and (b) knowledge can be decontextualized (whereby it is assumed that if we know something, we know it in any context). This is often articulated by teachers in such statements as, "You didn't know," "It doesn't apply to my problem or situation," or "There is nothing practical that I can do from what you have said."

A major philosophical problem with the traditional psychometric assessment approach involves how the purpose of schooling is viewed. Is schooling meant to yield common knowledge? If so, then it makes sense to think of assessment as testing to examine what students hold (or do not hold) in common. But what if education is seen to be a personal idiosyncratic affair. Genuine intellectual performance is inherently personalized and the understandings, strengths and behaviors that are derived from an education are inherently unique. Common knowledge is not the aim of education. We must keep in mind that the aim of education is to help the individual become a competent, intellectual performer, not a passive "selector" of orthodox and prefabricated answers.

Today we are failing to negotiate the dilemma of meaningful assessment. Our testing procedures are based on a simplistic stimulus/response view of learning and not on broader, higher level concepts of learning. It makes no intellectual sense to test for

knowledge as if knowledge was an unvarying response to unambiguous stimuli. Furthermore, test developers generally end up being more concerned with the precision of scores than with the valuable information that can be obtained from an assessment. Most professionally designed tests tend to sacrifice validity for reliability. The practice of traditional assessment may be reliable but not necessarily valid. Unfortunately, validity has simply become mere correlations between tests (in an endless circle of results on questionable tests being used to validate other questionable tests) (Wiggins, 1993). It seems a little peculiar that we should have devoted so much time to improving the reliability of our tests and so little time to improving the validity of assessment procedures.

Contextual issues also relate to assessment. There is no such thing as an invariant and generic testing situation (one in which students can be assumed to always reveal what they “know”). Once we grasp the fact that students’ abilities are influenced by the particular task and setting, the implications, according to Messick (1989) are considerable, “we are thus confronted with the fundamental question of whether the meaning of a measure is context-specific or whether it generalizes across contexts since the very nature of the task might be altered by the operation of constraining or facilitating factors in the specific situation.”

What We Need is a Functional Approach to Assessment

The rationale for adopting a functional approach to assessment is the failure of most norm-referenced, traditional approaches to provide data which is valid and useful for planning instructional modifications. Designers of assessment procedures must analyze performance into its components. If you want to assess who will be a successful fourth grader, go find what a successful fourth grader does. Authenticity in assessment, then, might well be thought of as an obligation to make the student experience questions and tasks under constraints as they typically and “naturally” occur, with access to the tools that are usually available for solving such problems (Wiggins, 1993). Unfortunately, many of our standardized tests indirectly measure student abilities and test items are (a) not related to the student instruction, and (b) limited in format (i.e. multiple-choice, true/false, etc.). As a result, different tests within a single subject area can provide very different results. For example, it is well-known that the use of different reading tests with a single child can result in significantly different grade level scores.

Achievement should be validated by a person’s demonstrated ability to use knowledge in the field. Most forms of assessment simply do not tell us what we need to know: namely, whether students have the capacity to use the knowledge they have wisely. We must not deny students in the assessment cycle access to reference materials and resources. Are these not precisely the sort of things we really want to evaluate,

whether they are organized, well-prepared and effective at using what they know? We must have assessment techniques that tell us about a student's ability to bring work to fruition, to sift through facts, to discern the significant from the insignificant, or to use knowledge to good effect. For example, what are assessors evaluating in a 20 minute essay? It most certainly is not the ability to write. Writing is revision, a constant returning to the basic questions of audience and purpose, a process that is missing from standard writing tests (where there is no audience, no opportunity to reflect on each draft and no real purpose). If writing is indeed revision, why not allow the writing assessment to occur over three or four days with access to reference materials? How can we ever assess such an ability in a one-sitting event?

The Challenge

The challenge at hand is to find and use assessment techniques that are valid, authentic and contextual. Two techniques, Curriculum-Based Measurement and Learning Potential Assessment, attempt to address these requirements.

Curriculum-Based Measurement

Curriculum-Based Measurement (CBM) is an alternative approach to assessing student achievement developed by Dr. Stanley Deno and Phyllis Mirkin at the University of Minnesota. CBM offers a data-based approach to making instructional decisions within both regular and special education. While traditional norm-reference tests are typically lengthy measures of students' general achievement in comparison with the general population, CBM is a simple set of procedures for frequent and repeated measurement to monitor student performances. CBM's advantages over traditional tests include (a) relevance to instruction by using the same materials used in the classroom, (b) focus on repeated measurement to monitor student progress, (c) lack of ethnic bias, (d) utility in charting student progress over time, (e) students' production of learned skills rather than selection of correct choices, and (f) feedback on the effectiveness of instructional interventions (Deno, 1985). CBM utilizes direct measures of student performance. The model focuses on actual student performance in reading, writing, spelling, math and readiness skills in the school curriculum.

CBM does not refer to a specific test but to a process of gathering information about student achievement. With CBM there is an emphasis on frequent assessment of student skills during the academic year. Traditional tests can only be administered once or twice a year, a major drawback if we wish to have continuous feedback on how well students are responding to instructional programs. Can we really afford to use traditional standardized tests and wait nine months to decide what instructional programs are working? CBM procedures are designed to be administered weekly and provide quick feedback on instructional effectiveness. CBM focuses on graphing and

analyzing student progress. By graphing the student's direct and repeated measurement performance in relation to the instructional programs being used, one can learn much about a student's learning style and the effectiveness of the selected educational program.

Blankenship (1985) developed a model that can be used for any type of curriculum material. The goal when developing a CBM is to produce an assessment device to measure student performance and to develop a plan for administration and interpretation. Blankenship outlined 12 steps to meet this goal. The nine steps are preinstruction guidelines, the tenth and eleventh steps are post-instruction guidelines. The steps are as follows:

1. List the skills that are presented in the selected curriculum materials. This helps to determine whether the skills presented match the teaching objectives.
2. Examine this list to check that all important skills are presented. If large gaps exist between skills or if skills are poorly sequenced, it is sometimes necessary to add to, delete from, or re-sequence the skills.
3. List the skills in logical order.
4. Write an objective for each skill on the list. This requires the specification of the conditions under which a student is to perform a task and the level of performance needed for mastery.
5. Prepare items to test each listed objective.
6. Prepare testing materials using these items. By writing objectives, the types of materials needed become apparent. A sufficient number of items must be included to assess each skill and alternate forms need to be developed to allow for repeated measures across the school year.
7. Plan how the CBM will be given.
8. Administer the CBM prior to beginning instruction on a topic.
9. Study the results to determine (a) which students have mastered the skills targeted for instruction, (b) which students possess sufficient prerequisite skills that render them ready to begin instruction and (c) which students lack mastery of the prerequisite skills.
10. Readminister the CBM after instruction.
11. Study the results to determine (a) which students have mastered the skills and are ready to be instructed on a new topic, (b) which students are mak-

ing sufficient progress but require more instruction or practice to achieve mastery and (c) which students are making insufficient progress requiring instructional modifications.

12. Readminister the CBM periodically throughout the year to assess long-term retention.

Learning Potential Assessment

The fundamental difference between the learning potential approach and the psychometric approach concerns the conceptual shift from a product to a process orientation. The implications of this shift are far reaching, not only with respect to methods and techniques, but also in terms of the kinds of questions and solutions that arise. A critical issue for assessment is whether to measure stability or change, and accordingly, to construct techniques with the purpose of reflecting predictability or modifiability. The purpose of conventional intelligence tests is to provide a measure representing stable characteristics of the individual that may serve, within reasonable limits, as a reliable predictor of future performance. This, however, is clearly of little value for any educational endeavor where the prescription of intervention procedures is to modify instructional procedures to enhance learning. A learning potential assessment framework examines the process of learning and seeks to employ strategies which facilitate acquisition of new information or skills. This type of approach generally follows a test-teach-test format. It is an attempt to provide a detailed description of the student's response to intervention.

Vygotsky's theory of a "zone of proximal development" is one example of learning potential assessment. Vygotsky's definition of the zone of proximal development is the distance between the actual development level as determined by individual problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by individual problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. In an evaluation, a task is presented to a child who, if unable to solve the problem, receives from the examiner progressive clues and information until he reaches the solution. The examiner measures the amount of additional information (e.g. number and types of prompts) required by the child for the solution. Once the child succeeds, he must solve another version of the original task, once again the examiner calculates the amount and types of clues necessary.

Feuerstein and his associates in Israel have developed the Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD), a battery of four nonverbal tests to assess an individual's specific cognitive abilities, as well as assess the amount and type of training necessary to induce modification in the person's ability to benefit from direct learning. Tasks within a given test of the LPAD battery are uniform in terms of method of successful

solutions, but different in terms of novelty and complexity. Feuerstein's technique seeks to improve the child's capacity to use a variety of cognitive operations required by a given task while simultaneously assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the child. Feuerstein and his colleagues have also developed a remedial program called "Instrumental Enrichment" which is based on information obtained from the LPAD.

Conclusion

Assessment in education must focus on validity, reliability and competency and must be applicable to instruction. Assessment cannot focus intensely on the "magical powers" of psychometric tests. The challenge is to find and use assessment procedures that are valid, reliable, authentic, contextual and meaningful. Curriculum-Based Measurement and Learning Potential Assessment are two techniques that facilitate this goal. These two techniques help educators to identify who is in need of additional interventions and what types of interventions are needed in order for the student to be successful. The procedures do not focus on identifying who is eligible for special education services. Rather, the focus is on who is in need and how best to meet those needs. Eligibility becomes merely an examination of if those needs are best met through modifications within the regular education program or through a special education program.

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INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Group work with adolescent immigrants.

The writer argues that group work is an efficient modality for helping adolescent immigrants. These youngsters experience special needs because they are caught in a unique situation of simultaneous development and sociocultural transitions. The advantages of group work in addressing these needs and guiding principles for useful group interventions are discussed. A program designed to provide group work services to immigrant adolescents from the former Soviet Union is described to illustrate the effectiveness of the group work modality with this population. The article is based on the experience of the writer as a group supervisor in the program. *Berger, Roni.* (Adelphi U School of Social Work, Garden City, NY). *Journal of Child & Adolescent Group Therapy*, 1996 (Dec), Vol 6(4), 169-179. [PA, Vol 84:27237]

The relationship of early behaviour to later developmental outcome for preterm children.

Analyzed early sleep states in 21 pre-term infants vs 23 full-term infants to determine whether such analysis can predict future development, and neurological development were measured and compared for the 2 groups until 1 yr of age. Additional measures for psychological and neurological development and social environment were made at ages 3 and 9 yrs for the pre-term group. Measures of sleep states at 12 and 24 weeks corrected age predicted 3-yr developmental outcomes. The complexity of these measures may contribute to their predictive validity for 3-yr outcomes. Measures of the social environment at 3 and 9 yrs contribute significantly to the prediction of 9-yr developmental outcomes. Results indicate that environmental factors may become more important with age. Detailed analysis of early sleep patterns may enable early identification of infants who need special care and intervention.

Dittrichova, Jaroslava; Brichacek, Vaclav, Mandys, Frantisek, Paul, Karel et al. (Inst for the Care of Mother & Child, Prague,

Supporting special needs in the mainstream classroom: Children's perceptions of the adult role.

Examined the responses of 713 children (aged 7-14+ yrs) attending 27 schools in London to 10 questions relating to the role of adults supporting special educational needs children in their classrooms and to the social desirability of being singled out for support.

Responses were classified into 5 broad types: (1) help for the teacher, (2) the disciplinary function, (3) pupil-focused attention/help for the child, (4) differentiation by ability or need, and (5) support teacher as lower-order professional. The findings suggest that the majority of those responding saw the support being directed toward the teacher's needs. The recognition of pupils' needs was less frequently expressed. The desirability of support became challenged by some children in the upper age range of the sample. Reasons for this and the implications for inclusive education are considered.

Bowers, T. (U Cambridge, School of Education, Cambridge, England). *Child: Care, Health & Development*, 1997 (May), Vol 23(3), 217-232. [PA, Vol 84:33523]

How specific are "specific developmental disorders"? The relevance of the concept of specific developmental disorders for the classification of childhood developmental disorders.

Discusses the concept of "specific developmental disorder" (SDD) which refers to delays in developmental domains such as language and speech, motor coordination or scholastic skills, in the absence of sensory deficits, subnormal intelligence or poor educational conditions. The key element of this concept is the notion of a discrepancy between observed and expected levels of development. Analyses of the %DSM-R and the 10th edition of the ICD, SDD serves as a conceptual umbrella, suggesting that the subsumed disorders are of the same type. In the DSM-IV, the SDD umbrella is not explicitly used, but the notion of discrepancy is present in the

Czech Republic). *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 1996(Sep), Vol 19(3), 517-532. [PA, Vol 84:21976]

The development of Italian low- and very-low-birthweight infants from birth to 5 years: The role of biological and social risks.

Compared biological vs social risks of cognitive, motor, linguistic, and social competency development delays in preterm vs fullterm children from birth to 5 yrs. Use of test scores of the 1st 2 yrs to predict later IQ scores was evaluated. 149 healthy Italian preterms were administered the Brunet-Lezine test at 6, 12 and 24 mo (corrected age) and the Stanford-Binet test at 3, 4 and 5 yrs (chronological age). Preterm birth was correlated with delays in development. The preterm group had motor, cognitive, and social delays in the 1st yr, linguistic delays until 24 mo, and general cognitive delays until 5 yrs. However, preterms' mean infant test scores and IQ scores were within the normal range. Intrauterine growth retardation, very-low-birthweight, and after the 1st yr, a low level of paternal Brunet-Lezine test scores, sex, and parental education were predictive of later IQ scores.

Sansavini, Alessandra, Rizzardi, Mario; Alessandroni, Rosina & Giovanelli, Giuliana. (U Bologna, Dept of Psychology, Bologna, Italy). *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 1996 (Sep), Vol 19(3), 533-547. [PA, Vol 84:23175]

Enhancing the reading of dyslexic children by reading acceleration and auditory masking.

This research attempted to improve the reading performance of dyslexic children through two different methods: reading acceleration and auditory masking. Participants were 52 dyslexic children and 52 reading-level matched normal, novice readers. Results indicated that whereas acceleration improved reading performance in both groups, auditory masking was beneficial to dyslexic children only. Furthermore, a combined condition of both acceleration and masking was the most effective in enhancing dyslexic children's comprehension. It is argued that because normal readers use the phonological route quite ef-

categories of Learning Disorders, Motor Skill Disorder and Communication Disorders, suggesting a close relationship between these disorders. An advantage of the use of SDD as a unifying concept is said to be its contribution to the standardization of the description of the various disorders. Based on reviews of research on SDD category reliability and validity, the authors argue that its application is premature. They propose more testing and elaboration of discrepancy for each of the categories for disorders in scholastic skills, language, speech and motor coordination.

Rispens, Jan & van Yperen, Tom A. (Utrecht U, Dept of Education, Utrecht, Netherlands). *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines*, 1997 (Mar), Vol 38(3), 351-363. [PA, Vol 84:31437]

Stres i izbjeglice./Stress and refugees

By individual and group work with 593 refugees in Osijek, the authors observed and analyzed their difficulties, evaluated the psychological and medical aspects of these difficulties. The psychosocial functioning of the refugees after having been forced to leave their home was assessed by the disposition they expressed: a calm and composed disposition was found in 3.8% of female and 10% of male Ss; disposition disturbance in males ranged from fear (37%) to despair (11%), and in females from fear (64%) to anger and rage (14%). The frequency of calm disposition went up with educational level and disposition disturbances increased with lower education. Rational fears were proportionally equal between the sexes and included fears for children, their own life, parents, property, and siblings. Homesickness, anger and rage, worries for the future, guilt and the feeling of being a burden to others were the emotional preoccupations of the Ss. Psychophysical symptoms and behavioral reactions included sleep disturbances, depression, loss of appetite, irritability, and functional disorders.

Mandic, Nikola & Ebling, Zdravko. (U Zagreb Medical Faculty, Dept of Psychiatry, General Hosp Osijek, Zagreb, Yugoslavia). *Socijalna Psihijatrija*, 1992, Vol 20(1), 69-80.

fectively, its masking is detrimental to performance. On the other hand, auditory masking reduces the impact of the presumed phonological impairment of dyslexic children. Analysis of decoding mistakes suggested that both manipulations might have resulted in a more effective utilization of orthographic information and enhanced top-down context effects for dyslexic and novice readers.

Breznitz, Zvia. (U Haifa, School of Education, Haifa, Israel). *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1997 (Mar), Vol 89(1), 103-113. [PA, Vol 84:23179]

Zerebral lateralisierung bei konstitutioneller Dyslexie: Elektrophysiologische Befunde. [Developmental dyslexia and cerebral lateralization: Electrophysiological findings.]

Event-related brain potentials were recorded from a developmental dyslexic and control group using a simple visual discrimination task. A large P3 component was elicited which did not differ in overall amplitude between groups. While the distribution was virtually symmetrical in the dyslexic group, there was a left hemispheric preponderance in the control groups. The latencies were longer, but not significantly so in the dyslexic group than with the controls. The results are compared to findings of neuroanatomical and neuroimaging studies which revealed less hemispheric asymmetries in dyslexics compared to control subjects.

Johannes, S.; G.R. & Munte, T.F. (Medizinische Hochschule Hannover, Neurologische Klinik mit Klinischer Neurophysiologie, Germany). *Nervenarzt*, 1994 (Dec), Vol 65(12), 859-864

Impact of memory strategies on the recall process of hyperactives.

Studied the impact of memory strategies on the recall process of hyperactive children. 72 pervasively hyperactive and 72 nonhyperactive children (aged 7-11 yrs) were presented with 10 cards consisting of anagrams that could be solved 2 ways placed at the center and their 2 solutions at the sides. One-half of the cards had concrete words as attended words and the other half had concrete words as unattended.

Word Recognition Index (WRI) as a quick screening marker for dyslexia.

Describes the use of the Word Recognition Index (WRI), which incorporates the scores of the Word Chain Test (WCT) and the Letter Chain Test, and can be used as a diagnostic tool for dyslexia. The WCT is a Swedish-developed 5 min group test of orthographic segmentation of words. Results from 2 studies which have utilized the WRI are presented. Results suggest that the WRI is a reliable way to identify individuals with poor word decoding ability. A WRI under 10 in adults appears to be a good indication of dyslexia. In screening for reading disabled persons with the WCT, a low WRI combined with a low result on the WCT has also proven to be a reliable method for identifying dyslexia.

Jacobson, Christer. (U Vaxjo, Reading Development in Kronoberg, Dept of Education, Vaxjo, Sweden). *Irish Journal of Psychology*, 1995, Vol 16(3), 260-266. [PA, Vol 84:31458]

Gyermekkori hiperaktivitás II: Laterális, nemi vonatkozások és vesztibularis kompenzáció. / Childhood hyperactivity II: Laterality, male dominance, and vestibular compensation.

Reviews of theoretical analyses concerning right hemisphere deficiency in attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Results of animal research are related, showing that right frontal cortical lesions result in hyperactivity only in male, but not in female rats, which is relevant with respect to a male dominance in childhood hyperactivity. Considering the therapeutic effect of vestibular stimulation in both in attention deficit disorder and in sensory neglect, a model is presented according to which hyperactivity, providing vestibular stimulation, is a self-healing device, compensating for the right hemisphere attention deficiency. The model is aimed at the interpretation of a seeming contradiction in the relation between childhood hyperactivity and adult psychotherapy, according to which, out of the 2 genetically related disinhibitory syndromes, the former is associated with the right and the latter with the left hemisphere

Ss were given either self-imposed or externally-imposed conditions. A separate ANOVA was conducted for concrete words and other than concrete words. Pervasively hyperactive Ss recalled fewer of the other than concrete words as compared to the nonhyperactive Ss, whereas, the performance of both groups remained the same for concrete words. Findings suggest that impaired self-regulatory processing is responsible for this type of deficit in hyperactive Ss.

Sharma, A. & Sinha, S.P. (Dayalbagh Educational Inst, Dept of Psychology, Agra, India). *Indian Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 1996 (Sep), Vol 23(2), 178-183. [PA, Vol 84:31439]

Electrophysiologic measures of delayed maturation in attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder.

T.L. Bell used EEG and transcranial magnetic stimulation to better comprehend the proposed delayed maturation in attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Ss were a group of 15 children (aged 3-7 yrs) diagnosed with ADHD and a group of 23 normal controls (aged 3-7 yrs). On the computerized EEG spectral analysis, significant differences from the controls were found only at the occipital areas when considering the theta/alpha balance. For the transcranial magnetic stimulation, the absolute mean latency to the right/left stimulation did not show significant differences. The velocity index magnified the side-to-side difference in every particular case. The overall difference in velocity index was statistically significant. Results are indicative of a delayed maturation involving the corticospinal pathway and the alpha rhythm. Therefore they represent a breakthrough in the diagnosis of ADHD.

Ucles, Paulino & Lorente, Santiago. (Miguel Servet Hosp, Dept of Clinical Neurophysiology, Zaragoza, Spain). *Journal of Child Neurology*, 1996 (Mar), Vol 11 (2), 155-156. [PA, Vol 84:23177]

deficiency. Attention is called to the significance of early therapy which might prevent the developmental retardation of the left hemisphere, resulting adult psychotherapy.

Kulcsar, Zsuzsanna. *Magyar Pszichologiai Szemle*, 1992-93, Vol 48-49(3-4), 292-321.

The identification of pervasive hyperactivity: Is clinic observation necessary?

24 children with clinic-observed hyperactivity, 20 children with reported hyperactivity, 15 children with situational hyperactivity, and 18 normal controls (all Ss aged 66-155 mo) were compared on measures of behavioral, developmental, and cognitive functioning. Clinic-observed and reported Ss did not differ significantly on any of the dependent variables. Situationally hyperactive children were less active, and had fewer behavioral and social difficulties than did children with pervasive hyperactivity. Normal controls were distinguished by their better academic and social performance and the absence of behavior problems, language delay, and hearing concerns. Results support the distinction between pervasive and situational hyperactivity, but not the separation of pervasive hyperactivity into clinic observable and reported hyperactivity.

Tripp, G. & Luk, S. L. (U Otago, Dept of Psychology, Dunedin, New Zealand). *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines*, 1997 (Feb), Vol 38(2), 219-234. [PA, Vol 84:26775]

La Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC). Un progres pour l'evaluation diagnostique? [The Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC): An advance in diagnostic evaluation?]

Presents a critical review of the utility of the K-ABC in intelligence testing and diagnosis of learning disabilities in children. The development and general characteristics of the K-ABC are described, and results from several validation studies are presented. The theoretical foundations of the instrument are

Longitudinal quantitative EEG study of children with different performances on a reading-writing test.

Investigated whether children with minor and severe difficulties in reading have a maturational lag, determined by more theta and less alpha brainwave activity, with respect to those with normal performance. Two different EEG records were obtained with an interval of 2.58-3.15 yrs in 49 children, mean age 9 yrs old. Absolute (AP) and relative powers (RP) in the delta, theta, alpha and beta bands were computed for each session. In general, Ss with minor and severe difficulties showed greater changes than Ss with adequate performance from session to session. ANOVAs performed by session demonstrate many significant differences between groups in the 1st study, while few significant differences in parieto-occipital regions in theta RP were observed in the 2nd session. Results suggest a maturational spurt of Ss with minor and severe difficulties. *Harmony, Thalia, Marosi, Erzebet, Beker, Jacqueline; Rodriguez, Mario et al.* (U Nacional Autonoma de Mexico, Mexico City, Mexico). *Electroencephalography & Clinical Neurophysiology*, 1995 (Dec), Vol 95(6), 426-433. [PA, Vol 84:23183]

Speech perception deficits in poor readers: Auditory processing or phonological coding?

Poor readers are inferior to normal-reading peers in aspects of speech perception. Two hypotheses have been proposed to account for their deficits: (1) a speech-specific failure in phonological representation and (2) a general deficit in auditory "temporal processing," such that they cannot easily perceive the rapid spectral changes of formant transitions at the onset of stop-vowel syllables. To test these hypotheses, 2 groups of 2nd graders (20 "good readers" and 20 "poor readers") were selected to differ significantly on a /ba/-/da/ temporal order judgment (TOJ) task, said to be diagnostic of a temporal processing deficit. Three experiments then showed that the groups did not differ in (1) TOJ when /ba/ and /da/ were paired with more easily discriminated syllables (/ba/-/sa/, /da/-/fa/); (2) discriminating

evaluated, with emphasis on the dichotomies between sequential processes and simultaneous processes and between mental processes and knowledge. The contribution of the K-ABC to diagnosis and remediation is appraised, and the applications of the K-ABC and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised (WISC-R) are compared. It is argued that the K-ABC does not meet the overambitious claims of its authors and does not replace the WISC-R, especially in the field of intelligence testing.

Gregoire, Jacques. (U Catholique de Louvain, Faculte de Psychologie et des Sciences de l'education, Faculte de Psychologie et des Sciences de l'Education, Brussels, Belgium). *Bulletin de Psychologie Scolaire et d'Orientation*, 1995, Vol 44(2), 65-85.

Igaku wa gakushu shogai to yu gainen ya yogo o shiyo subeki dewa nai./The term "Gakushu Shogai" (learning disabilities) is not a medical one.

On the basis of a literature survey, clinical studies and the results of medical, historical and social evaluations of the nature and rights of the handicapped, the author proposes a strong critical evaluation of "Gakushu Shogai" (GS). The author believes that medically, (1) the term "GS" is an inaccurate translation of "LD"; (2) it lacks a precise, biologically based medical definition; (3) is therefore not, by diagnostic standards, clinically appropriate; and (4) it lacks a well developed set of logical and ethical standards of application. "GS" is not only inadequate medical terminology but its use also leads to additional harmful misattribution of the cause of various associated psycho-sociological problems. The author proposes, therefore, that the term "GS" be replaced by a new, socially oriented term encompassing the nature and rights of the handicapped.

Ishikawa, Noribiko. (Medical College, Tokyo U, Japan). *Japanese Journal of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 1993 (Sep-Nov), Vol 34(5), 454-464.

PI c a wyniki w Skali Wechslera u dzieci z trudnosciami w uczeniu sie./Gender and Wechsler Scale results in children with learning difficulties.

Conducted a study to verify a hypothesis (J.S.

nonspeech sine wave analogs of the 2nd and 3rd formants of /ba/ and /da/; and (3) sensitivity to brief transitional cues varying along synthetic speech continuum. Thus, poor readers' difficulties with /ba/-/da/ reflected perceptual confusion between phonetically similar, though phonologically contrastive, syllables rather than difficulty in perceiving rapid spectral changes. The results are consistent with a speech-specific, not a general auditory, deficit.

Mody, Maria, Studdert-Kennedy, Michael & Brady, Susan. (ENST, Dept Signal, Paris, France). *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 1997 (Feb), Vol 64(2), 199-231 [PA, Vol 84:23185]

Description des activites quotidiennes d'orthopedagogues. / Descriptions of everyday activities of learning assistance teachers.

Learning assistance teachers usually provide support services to children with learning difficulties in the core subjects. Our study offers a close description of these services. Eighteen learning assistance teachers working in mainstreamed classes completed summary forms covering two weeks of work, and participated in individual interviews. Analysis of the evidence shows that most services are delivered outside of regular classes to children identified on flexible criteria, and that non-typical forms of intervention by consultation or by problem-solving teams are rare on the ground.

Filion, Micheline & Goupil, Georgette. (Ecole Vanguard, Montreal, PQ, Canada). *Canadian Journal of Education*, 1995 (Spr), Vol 20(2), 225-238.

Learning disabilities in secondary schools: Challenge to educational psychologists and counselors.

Highlights specific roles of educational psychologists and school counselors in identifying and alleviating the problems of learning disabled (LD) children in Nigerian secondary schools. Because LD children have a developmental imbalance of abilities and disabilities, they are difficult to identify and remedy. Educational psychologists can start this

Lawson and J.Inglis, 1985) about a relationship between gender and cognitive deficit type in children with learning difficulties, with a global lowering of verbal and nonverbal test results expected for girls and varied results expected for boys. Human Ss: 99 male and female Polish school-age children (aged 8yrs 1 mo to 11 yrs 11 mo) (reading and writing difficulties) (elementary school students). Ss were administered the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised (WISC-R). The boys' and girls' scores on 6 tests of verbal intelligence and 5 tests of nonverbal intelligence were analyzed, and their general IQ, verbal IQ, and nonverbal IQ were compared.

Tucholska, Stanislaw. (Katolicki U Lubelski, Lublin, Poland). *Psychologia Wychowawcza*, 1996 (Jan-Feb), Vol 39(1), 23-29.

School attainment, cognitive ability and motor function in a total Scottish very-low-birthweight population at eight years: A controlled study.

Compared the prevalence of learning problems and of cognitive and motor impairment in 324 very low-birthweight children at 8 yrs of age with that in a population of 590 children comprising 2 classroom peers, matched for gender and age. 15% of Ss with birth weights less than 1000 g and 6% of Ss weighing 1000-1499 g attended special schools. Index children in main-stream schools performed significantly less well in tests of neuromotor function than their comparison groups. Their mean IQs were 90.4 and 93.7 for those below and above 1000 g, respectively, while their comparison groups' IQs were 102.5 and 101.2. Ss were also less able in Word Reading and Basic Number Skills. These children placed heavy demands on mainstreamed schools, with 52% and 37% of the index groups, respectively, requiring learning support compared with 16% in both comparison groups.

Hall, Alastair; McLeod, Alice, Counsell, Claire; Thomson, Lesley et al. (U Glasgow, Public Health Research Unit, Glasgow, Scotland). *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology*, 1995 (Dec), Vol 37(12), 1037-1050. [PA, Vol 84:24670]

process by diagnosing the disorder through observations, testing, evaluation, and accurate characterization of students' outward behaviors. Educational counselors then work with teachers and parents to create practical diagnostic techniques specifically geared to the students' problems. This cooperative relationship between educational psychologists, school counselors, teachers and parents pools all resources to create an integrated and appropriate educational approach.

Olaseinde, Olabisi. (U Ilorin, Faculty of Education, Dept of Educational Foundations, Ilorin, Nigeria). *IFE Psychologia: An International Journal*, 1994, Vol 2(2), 173-183. [PA, Vol 84:24678]

Acquiescence in quality-of-life interviews with adults who have mental retardation.

Examined acquiescence in interviews of 313 males and 303 females (aged 18-69 yrs) with mental retardation through the use of quality of life study data. The study also examined whether acquiescence was related to the Ss' age, gender, level of mental retardation, living conditions, and communicative ability, or to situational factors related to the interview. When an item-reversal technique with 4 pairs of oppositely worded questions was used, 11.1-36.3% of Ss answered acquiescently. The rates of acquiescence were much lower than the authors expected on the basis of the results of C. Sigelman et al. (1981). No significant correlations between acquiescence and level of mental retardation were found. Women acquiesced more than men did. A significant relation was found between acquiescence and gender combination of an interviewee and an interviewer.

Matikka, Leena M. & Vesala, Hannu T. (Finnish Assn on Mental Retardation, Helsinki, Finland). *Mental Retardation*, 1997 (Apr), Vol 35(2), 75-82. [PA, Vol 84:31476]

The generalisation of social skills by preferred peers with autism.

The study used a replicated AB design to evaluate the generalisation to the playground of selected social skills taught in a brief program conducted in an early intervention centre. 15 autistic 4-5 yr olds were asked to nominate from an array of classmate photos, 3 peers with whom they would like to play and sit. Results indicate that children with autism can identify preferred peers, and when mutually selected pairs of children with autism participate in a social skills program as an addition to their ongoing participation in early intervention, increases in skills can be observed in the generalisation setting. Increases in specific skills, however, are not consistent for all children.

Hall, Laura J. & Smith, Kerry L. (Deakin U, School of Studies in Disability, Burwood, VIC, Australia). *Journal of Intellectual & Developmental Disability*, 1996 (Dec), Vol 21(4), 313-330. [PA, Vol 84:23165]

Teaching receptive naming of Chinese characters to children with autism by incorporating echolalia.

Assessed the facilitative effect of incorporating echolalia in teaching receptive naming of Chinese characters to children with autism. In Exp 1, with a 9-yr-old boy, echoing the requested character name prior to the receptive naming task facilitated matching a character to its name. In addition, task performance was consistently maintained only when echolalia preceded the receptive manual response. Positive results from generalization tests suggested that learned responses occurred across various novel conditions. Exp 2, using 3 Ss (aged 8-10 yrs), examined the relation between task difficulty and speed of acquisition. All 3 Ss achieved 100% correct responding in training, but learning less discriminable characters took more trials than learning more discriminable characters. Results provide support for incorporating echolalia as an educational tool within language instruction for some children with autism.

Leung, Jin-Pang & Wu, Kit-I. (Chinese U of Hong Kong, Psychology Dept, Shatin, Hong Kong). *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 1997 (Spr), Vol 30(1), 59-68. [PA, Vol 84: 33541]

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